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ABSTRACT

This study describes the legal status, aims, organization, resources, role and future prospects of the independent educational sector of each of 17 countries of Western Europe and the context in which it operates. The term "independent" schools is meant to include what traditionally have been called private schools, and also includes schools that are run by either charitable or non-profit making institutions that differ from the state system by reason of their independent status and their freedom to control their own affairs. The study also is intended to demonstrate the nature of and the reasons for the very considerable differences between independent education amongst Western European countries in the degree of freedom allowed and support given to independent schools and parents in order to ensure equality of opportunity to choose and variety of educational offerings. Individual reports are presented about the following countries: Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, The Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, The United Kingdom, Austria, Finland, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland. (An appendix includes a list of independent school associations.) (DB)

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INDEPENDENT EDUCATION IN WESTERN EUROPE

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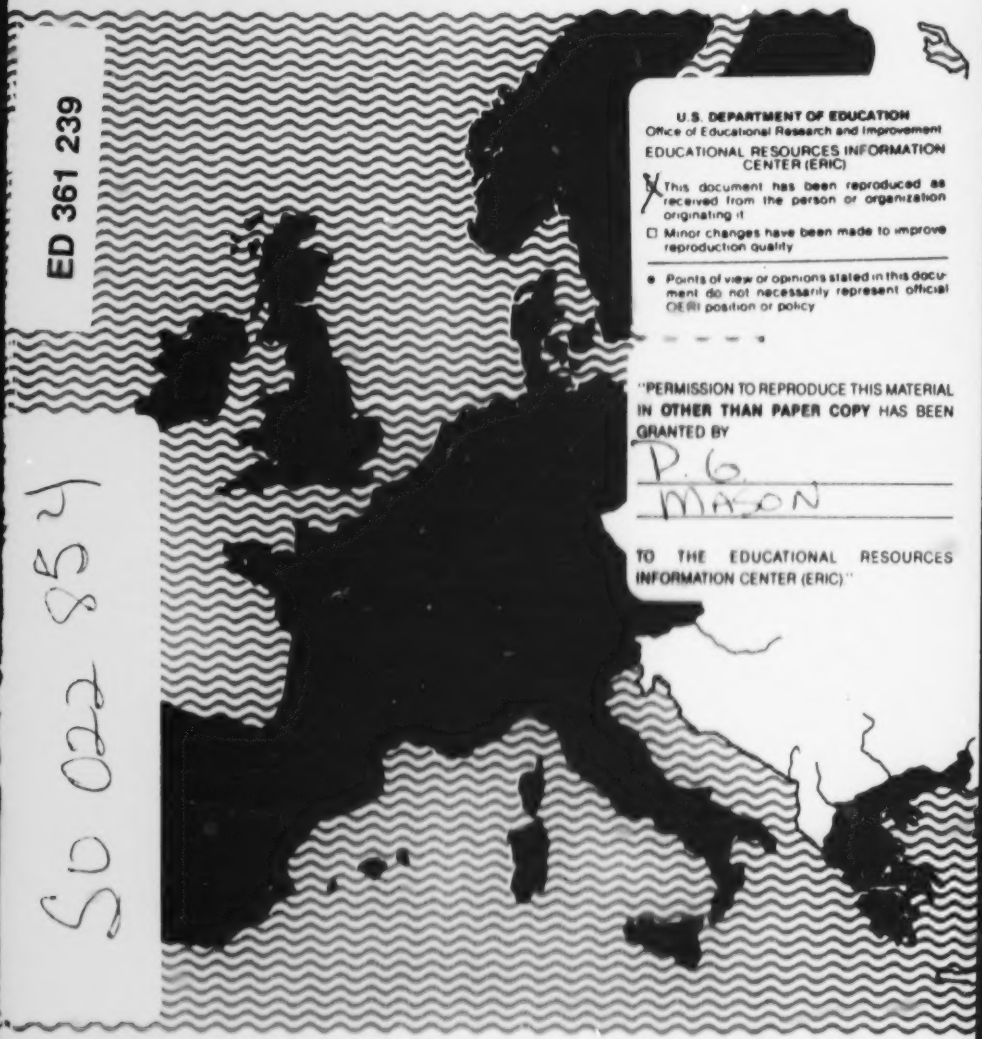

by Peter Mason

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INDEPENDENT EDUCATION IN WESTERN EUROPE

INTRODUCTION

The European scene

Since the publication of *Private Education in the EEC* in 1983 when the Community consisted of ten members, the pace of change in Europe has accelerated beyond all expectation and 1992 is marked not only by the beginning of a new phase in the economic and political development of the Community as it is at present constituted but by the emergence of new democracies from the ruins of the Warsaw Pact whose ambition is for partnership sooner or later in a larger and perhaps Federal Europe. This second edition has therefore been updated and enlarged to include Spain and Portugal, which have joined the Community since the first edition, and also Austria, Switzerland, Finland, Norway and Sweden—countries which, while they are not at present within the Community fold, share the same Western European traditions of education and uphold the importance of variety and freedom of choice for parents and educators and of ensuring, as far as is practicable, equality of opportunity in our increasingly pluralistic societies. This extension corresponds with the establishment of closer links and greater interchange of experience between independent schools in these countries through the European Council of National Associations of Independent Schools (ECNAIS) which was established in April 1988 as the result of a conference organised by the Independent Schools Joint Council in London in 1987. The Council, together with its opposite number, the European Committee for Catholic Education, with which it has close liaison, represents virtually the whole independent sector in discussions with the EC Commission and the Council of Europe.

It may well not be long before further chapters will be needed to cover the development of independent education in the new democracies of Eastern Europe. In Germany government is actively promoting changes in legislation for education, including changes to the Constitution and the laws of the new Länder, to permit the establishment of independent schools parallel to those of Western Germany. In Poland, Czechoslovakia and Hungary a number of independent schools, including a Steiner school in Hungary and another in Estonia, have already been established and are in negotiation with their governments about the creation of new educational legislation to guarantee their freedom and, if possible, to assist them with funding. Their efforts are encouraged and co-ordinated by a new pressure group, FORUM, which is supported by academics and educational associations in Western Europe. They lack adequate financial resources, equipment and trained teachers, especially in foreign languages but nevertheless demonstrate how important they feel educational freedom and variety to be for their changed societies. At a recent working party on Education in a Free Society organised by the European Foundation Centre in Belgium, the contributions of delegates from the former Warsaw Pact countries showed their Western colleagues that they had much of value to the West to contribute from their own experiences.

Patterns of independence

It is the purpose of this study not only to describe in some detail the legal status, aims, organisation, resources, role and future prospects of the independent sector in each country and the context in which it operates but to demonstrate the nature of and the reasons for the very considerable differences between them in the degree of freedom allowed and support given to independent schools and parents in order to ensure equality of opportunity to choose and variety of educational offering.

The role of government in education and the nature of its responsibility for it are in process of slow but steady change throughout Europe, though not at a uniform pace--change from the role of controller and manager to that of 'enabler', whose duty is to provide the means and logistic support for a very varied pattern of self-governing educational institutions in which teachers, parents and the local community share a measure of control and influence. In the so-called Luster Declaration of 1984 the European Community gave some impetus towards change in this direction when it officially called upon its members to recognise more completely the right of parents to choose their children's education, which must be without discrimination based on sex, race, philosophical or religious beliefs, nationality, social class or economic standing and in accordance with the various declarations of human rights. The ten clauses of the resolution included explicit mention of freedom in education and the right to establish independent schools, which governments must subsidise on equal terms with the state system but which should be required to 'make a certain contribution of their own as a token of their own responsibility and as a means of supporting their independent status'.

In the earlier edition I pointed out that while the United Kingdom shares with its continental neighbours the common traditions of Western democratic culture, including a commitment to freedom of belief and therefore of parental choice in education and to variety of educational aims, there are on the other hand considerable differences of practice both in the organisation of education and in curriculum between the UK and continental countries. These stem mainly from differences in historical and social development, accentuated by geography and temperament. At one end of what I have elsewhere called the 'élitist' spectrum, independent schools in the United Kingdom, which educate about 7.4% of the total school population, enjoy virtual freedom from control by government in curriculum and policy matters, are mostly charitable institutions enjoying certain privileges in matters of taxation and receive no direct subsidies from government. This means that the full cost of educating their pupils must come from fees paid by parents or their sponsors (including government through the Assisted Places Scheme) and, where they exist, from endowments—which are mostly used for scholarships and bursaries. Furthermore admission to independent secondary schools is normally by competitive examination, though the standards required vary from school to school, so that there is a double hurdle for potential recruits to overcome. On the one hand the schools are highly prized for their autonomy, their generally high academic achievement and the quality of their corporate life and on the other are much criticized for their expense and exclusiveness and are the subject of attack from political parties.

At the other end of the spectrum, in Holland and Belgium, where between 60% and 70% of the school population are in the independent sector, Catholic, Protestant and lay independent schools are fully subsidized by the state, may not charge fees for general education and must for the most part conform to state curricula and examinations. As a result opportunity for choice and equality of opportunity are maximised at the cost of a premium on variety and experiment and a high degree of government control.

In between these extremes are systems in which partial subsidy and different degrees of control achieve a more or less acceptable balance between the two poles for the society concerned. The most notable is perhaps that of Denmark where a long tradition both of state involvement in education and of democratic freedom of choice has achieved an enviable degree of freedom and openness combined with state support. The Danish Ministry of Education gives great freedom over curriculum and teaching

methods to individual schools, both state and independent, and it is normal for them to be much influenced by parental wishes and opinions, a process which is, as was indicated above, now gaining more momentum and legal recognition in other European countries generally. Denmark's special distinction is that it gives open, neutrally administered and liberal financial aid to independent schools of every type, creed and philosophy provided they satisfy some very mimimal standards and teach the Danish language.

It should perhaps be added in this connection that three additional factors may help to explain differences between the role of independent schools in the UK and on the Continent. Firstly, in all countries except in the UK, confessional schools have remained recognised parts of a subsidised independent sector and have fought for and obtained this recognition in various kinds of *'guerre scolaire'* against proponents of unitary, lay systems of education, sometimes at the cost of political concessions in other fields. In England, where education was for many centuries virtually the monopoly of the established Church of England, the majority of Church primary and secondary schools were absorbed into the state system early in the twentieth century as 'voluntary-aided' or 'controlled' schools with only limited autonomy, which has since been further diminished. Only those which belonged to the so-called 'public schools' remained in the independent sector, except in Northern Ireland where aided schools are largely independent. Secondly, until very recently there has been no centralised control of curriculum and organisation in the UK. In the state system local authorities and governors and heads of schools have shared much of the very real autonomy of the independent sector. Thirdly, though the UK has signed the various Declarations of Human Rights, they are not incorporated in English law and there is no written constitution of the kind found in other European countries to guarantee personal rights of choice.

Underlying the differences in the status and organisation of independent education in all democratic countries is the long-standing debate for and against freedom of choice, a debate in which the balance has moved convincingly in favour of increased opportunity during the last decade, and more especially since the collapse of Marxist regimes in Russia and the Warsaw Pact countries and the discrediting of socialist dogma and the command economy. In France a socialist government which attempted to weaken the almost exclusively Catholic independent sector and wished ultimately to impose a single, lay and unified national system of education was thwarted by massive demonstrations of support from parents, the Catholic church and the public in 1984 and forced to abandon attempts to zone entry and restrict expansion. Nevertheless, the struggle continues without loss of momentum despite the European movement in favour of pluralism fostered by a neutral state authority. In Spain, where some 33% of the school population attend independent schools, the 'schools of social initiative' as they are called have lost some ground and are still under pressure caused in part by the government's financial weakness and in part by their political convictions, but can count on majority support from voters. In the UK the Labour Party, while still opposed to independent education, has abandoned its declared aim of abolishing it entirely and in Greece, where all kinds of education are subject to undiluted central control, policy has changed somewhat with the defeat of Papandreou's party. Public opinion polls and surveys in all countries show that on average 70% of the electorate are firmly in favour of freedom of parental choice for its own sake and for variety, which are seen to help to promote a more lively and varied adult democratic society; and the argument that a unified system of comprehensive schools is the only basis for equality of opportunity has been proved to fail. Debate is now centred not on

the right of independent schools to exist but on the amount and manner of subsidy and control required to afford a real degree of equality of opportunity to the disadvantaged as well as to the prosperous without damage to quality and variety. How best to subsidise is still much in debate and subsidies, where they exist, will come under increasing economic pressure in the nineties. The argument in favour of some kind of voucher, whether uniform or weighted to favour the least able to pay fees of any kind, has not yet been put on trial except briefly in state schools in California in the 70s but may well gain in appeal. What is certain is that subsidy given to parents according to need rather than to schools would help to provide opportunity and variety of choice and give greater freedom to the schools from administrative controls. The British Assisted Places Scheme, if its competitive element were reduced and it were extended to places at Steiner and other schools, might well offer a more satisfactory solution than the cumbersome checks and balances now in force in so many countries.

The title of this study, Independent Education in Europe, reflects the deliberate choice of this description by what have traditionally been called 'private' schools both in the UK and in Europe generally and which are still in many countries so described in legislation and in popular usage. In the main 'independent' schools are to-day either charitable or non-profit-making institutions which differ from the state system by reason of their independent status and their freedom to control their own affairs. In the studies which follow, the word 'private' has been retained where it better suits the historical context or the legislative and administrative practice of the country concerned. The general public in many countries still tends to use the older, more familiar term, while the term 'free' tends to be applied to experimental types of school whose educational philosophy and organisation differ from established patterns.

A personal note

As Honorary Director of Research for the Independent Schools Information Service and later also as Chairman of the European Council of National Associations of Independent Schools (ECNAIS) I have been privileged in the course of the last twelve years to travel widely in Europe as well as further afield, to see something at first hand of the role and organisation of independent schools in the different countries and to meet those who run them and teach in them or administer their associations, parents, pupils, government officials and representatives of the press. Without their patience in answering enquiries and the warmth of their hospitality and friendship the gathering of anything like adequate evidence would have been an impossible task. My debt of gratitude to each and every one of them is immense and I can only apologise for the misunderstandings and lacunae which my friends in Europe will inevitably detect in the account of their special fields of interest. Some of these, at least, result from the tardiness of government statisticians in many countries in the compilation of up-to-date educational statistics. I must make special mention of two friends whose help and support has been especially precious—Kjeld Ahlmann Olesen, the Director of Frie Grundskolers Faellesråd in Denmark and Secretary of ECNAIS and Raf de Zutter, Secretary General of the European Committee for Catholic Education in Brussels—the two associations which collaborate to represent virtually the whole independent sector in Europe.

Acknowledgement: *The diagrams showing the educational systems of the 12 member countries of the Community are the work of the national units of the Eurydice network, published in an Eurydice European Unit publication entitled "The Education Structures in the Member States of the European Community."*

Belgium

The national background

Education in Belgium is complicated by the linguistic divisions between speakers of French, Flemish and German, which are reflected in political structures and indeed are the main determinant in education, as in other aspects of national life. In the past education has been administered by two separate Ministries of Education and Culture, one for the French and German and one for the Dutch language groups, on the basis of an agreed common policy with regional variations based on language and with a mixed economy in Brussels to accommodate its mixed population. There are no bilingual schools in Belgium. New amendments to the Constitution made in June 1988 have further extended this long-standing division of the educational system based on language and cultural difference.

The newly revised Constitution formally recognises the existence of three separate communities based on language, each with a Council with legislative and executive powers. By agreement between the political parties which form the national government the Councils each receive a share of the national budget to be spent on cultural affairs, including education, public health and other matters. It remains to be seen how far the communities will use their new autonomy to create divergent patterns of control in the educational system. So far the Flemish political parties have decided to create an autonomous Council responsible for 'community' education in the state system; but Francophone parties do not intend to follow the same course. The effect of the constitutional changes on the independent sector will be considered in the following section.

Until the 1970s all Belgian schools were conservatively organised on nineteenth century lines with rigid central control and early selection into vocational and academic tracks (type II in the accompanying diagram). A movement for the renovation of fundamental education which began in 1971 initiated changes in both primary and secondary organisation, curricula and teaching methods. Secondary education in particular was converted into a quasi-comprehensive, integrated system designed to give greater equality of opportunity with specialisation postponed until the end of the first four years (type I). This is now obligatory in state schools, which are normally coeducational and must be neutral in matters of religion, but some type II schools remain in the French and German sectors. Full-time compulsory schooling ends at 15 but continues part-time until 18, mainly in courses in technical or vocational schools. There are compulsory school-based examinations at 15 and for those who stay in full-time schooling at 18.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. **The legal and constitutional position**

Article 17 of the Belgian Constitution of 1830 as revised in 1971 forbade any restriction on the opening of a school but required schools which grant authorised diplomas and/or receive subsidies to conform to legal and statutory conditions. Freedom of choice between religious and non-religious education had been guaranteed by the conclusion of the long-standing dispute between contending clericals and anti-clericals in the *pacte scolaire* of 1958 between Christian Socialists, Socialists and Liberals and by the passing of a law of education in May 1959 laying down basic principles for both state and independent schools.

Article 2.3 set out the right of private persons and associations to found and organise schools and to determine their own educational programmes and teaching methods subject to compliance with statutory provisions about required subjects, hygiene and holidays. Subsidised schools were required to adopt one of the recognised state patterns or some other pattern which was approved by the Ministry. Since in fact almost all independent schools in Belgium, including not only nursery, primary and secondary schools of all kinds but also art schools, teacher training colleges and other institutions at secondary and tertiary level, are fully subsidised, the system ensures very real equality of opportunity and a degree of variety of choice, mainly but by no means exclusively between Catholic and state institutions. On the debit side is the limitation of financial resources to a common level.

The newly revised Article 17 of 1988 reaffirms the principle of the right of all to education, of freedom of choice in education for parents, of parity of esteem for different types of state and subsidised school within the system and of free education for all in the compulsory years. It also guarantees parity of rights before the law for pupils, staff, parents and schools while allowing the authorities to modify regulations to meet differences in types of school; and it provides a Court of Arbitration to settle disputes.

The law distinguishes between state schools, which are 'neutral', 'church' schools and 'pluralist' schools which welcome pupils of all faiths or of none. This last category includes Montessori, Decroly and Steiner schools. Its most notable feature is its insistence on parity of rights and treatment at the public expense, illustrated in a clause of the 1959 law which requires the authorities either to provide travel costs for a child whose parents have no non-confessional school within reasonable distance or to open a new non-confessional school and, vice-versa, to recognise for subsidy a nearby confessional school whose staff have equivalent confessional diplomas or to provide travel costs. It further provides for parental choice within state and subsidised schools between a fixed period of religious instruction by ministers of religion (Catholic, Protestant, Jewish, Islamic or Orthodox) or humanistic teaching.

The effects of this and previous legislation on the independent sector will be considered in the final section. Although the way education is organised remains in the hands of the national parliament, the interpretation of its decrees is leading to bitter conflict. In general there is likely to be growing divergence from national norms at least in the Flemish community which will be reflected in the independent sector.

2. **Statistics**

In 1989/90, according to statistics published by Eurydice in 1991, the distribution of pupils in independent and state education at the different levels in the three communities was as follows:

Level	*Language*	*Community schools*	*Indep. schools*	*Total*	*% Indep.*
Pre-school	French	93,238	62,751		
	German	2,017	250		
	Dutch	63,177	150,558		
Total pre-school		158,432	213,559	371,991	57.40%
Primary	French	167,518	134,629		
	German	3,397	619		
	Dutch	153,705	281,293		
Total primary		324,620	416,541	741,161	58.20%

Level	*Language*	*Community schools*	*Indep. schools*	*Total*	*% Indep.*
Secondary	French	160,220	184,453		
	German	1,793	1,809		
	Dutch	116,190	325,650		
Total secondary		278,203	511,912	790,115	64.78%
Grand Total		761,255	1,142,012	1,903,267	60.00%

An analysis of the independent school population in 1986/7 gives them 56.6% of the total school population. About 98% of independent pupils in that year attended Catholic schools. It will be clear from the table above that the percentage of pupils in the Dutch-speaking community is much higher than in French-speaking Wallonia and that the independent sector is increasing its proportion in a declining total school population.

3. **Organisation**

Independent schools are owned, managed and controlled by their governing bodies or owners, who are the employers of the teaching and non-academic staff. Provided that they follow a curriculum approved by the relevant Minister of Education and his inspectors they qualify for the following subventions from public funds:

the full cost of salaries for heads, teaching and administrative staff, paid direct to the personnel concerned and calculated on scales applying to their equivalents in state schools.

an indexed capitation fee per pupil for running costs and wages, which ranged in 1989 from BF5,126 for a nursery school to BF15,000+ for higher secondary or technical schools.

variable fees per pupil towards the cost of equipment—BF65 in 89/90—and towards the cost of books during compulsory schooling.

annual grants for boarding provision (BF573,308 in 88/9) and capitation fees for boarders which vary according to level.

Independent school pupils also qualify for transport to and from school by the School Transport Service where no public transport is available.

In addition schools may apply for help for the construction or improvement of school buildings, including boarding, from a Community Fund. The Fund is able to use its resources to give security for loans taken out by the school and to reduce interest from market rates to 1½%.

The conditions of service for teachers in subsidised schools are regulated by a special law and are similar to those of state teachers.

The schools continue to campaign for complete financial parity with their state equivalents, claiming that the laws to date provide them with only the minimum guarantee of viability, not the price of free education for all. They do not for the most part have the benefit of large endowments and supplement their income where they can by voluntary payments from parents, graded according to means. The École Decroly, which grew from 300 to 900 in the last decade, invites parents to contribute to a separate foundation responsible for its buildings and maintenance sums ranging from BF16,000 to BF27,800 for a single child depending on stage and from BF27,800 to BF41,400 for two or more children, with a discount of 25% for teachers.

4. **Co-ordination and control**

Catholic schools, which vastly outnumber the rest, are controlled by the Bishops, the Orders and congregations, school committees and other bodies. They are for the most part coordinated by the National Secretariat for Catholic Education (NSKO) in Brussels. There is a Catholic Teachers Union (ARKO). The final authority is the Representative Association of Governing Bodies of Catholic Schools (RVIMKO).

The National Secretariat is a large organisation offering financial and legal services, curriculum development and training.

La Fédération des Ecoles Libres Subventionées Indépendantes (FELSI) is a small group of subsidised, specialised non-confessional schools based on Decroly, Frenet, and similar educational theories or catering for the handicapped. They appeal increasingly to professional middle-class parents, especially teachers, with 'advanced' views.

The Steiner Association, based in Antwerp, has some 16 member schools, mostly with nursery and primary departments. Two are special schools. Its growth has been less spectacular than in Holland, where Steiner schools have mushroomed.

5. **The role and status of the independent sector and its future prospects**

Independent subsidised schools are felt to have the edge on what are called the 'official schools' because they can normally count on greater involvement of parents, staff and pupils and have more clearly defined educational aims. Their facilities are often not better than those of state schools and standards in both sectors are far from lavish by European standards. Some Catholic schools in down-town areas are indeed Spartan. Their main function is to offer the element of choice which is central to Belgian educational policy. The name and type of school counts for little in later life compared with university and other higher education qualifications but the bulk of middle-class professional and business people have attended an independent school and wish their children to do the same. Catholic parents send their children to down-town schools on grounds of social conscience.

In educational terms the confessional schools, with their greater share of the school population than their state equivalents, have acted as a moderating influence on a reorganisation which was not in itself very radical and which has clearly suffered from hasty implementation, lack of adequate resources and the opposition of many teachers. In Flemish-speaking areas in particular more than half of Catholic schools retain the traditional, divided pattern of secondary education. Nevertheless, the concept of a child-centred comprehensive system offering the maximum of choice deferred until the completion of a basic course is slowly gaining ground and will inevitably be given greater impetus as the influence of the European Community increases in education as in other spheres of national life.

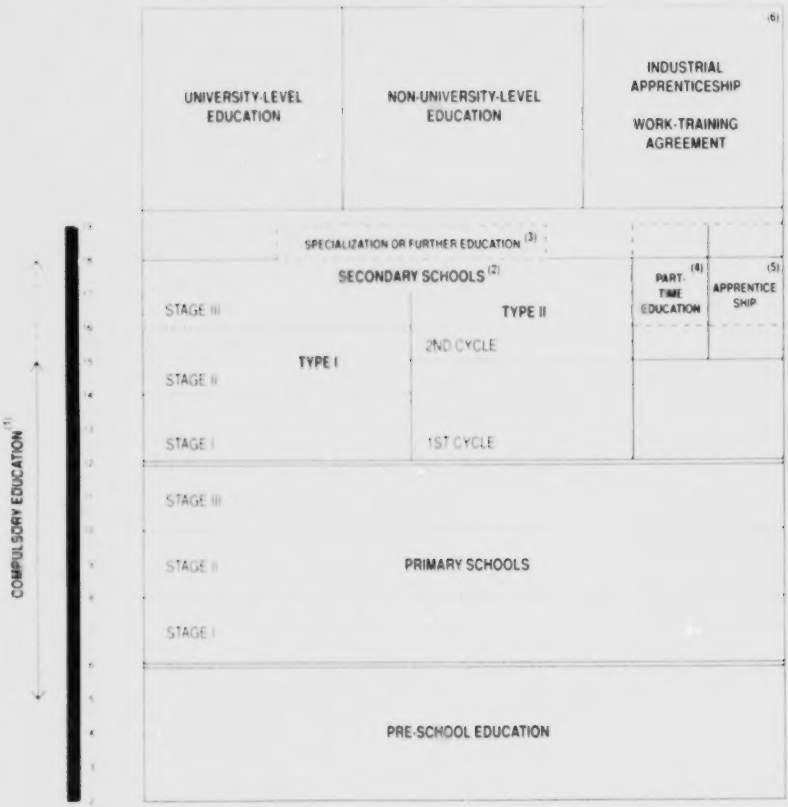
On what may be called the 'élitist scale', independent schools in Belgium as in Holland rate very low indeed. The price they pay for their high degree of subsidy is the limitation this imposes on innovation, experiment and attainment. They believe that the reforms established by the revised Constitution strengthen the guarantees of free choice, freedom of conscience, variety and equality of opportunity they stand for but still hope for an improvement in their grants. In terms of variety it is not altogther an advantage that, with all their useful strengths and qualities, the Catholic schools so far outweigh their colleagues in numbers and influence.

The most real threat to the future of Belgian independent schools and to the Belgian system in general is financial. Belgium is amongst the highest spenders on education

within the OECD area, but like its neighbours faces the need for a disproportionate increase in the education budget if, as population growth increases demand, it is to provide adequate facilities for teaching, finance research to support new teaching methods and, above all, attract and train teachers of quality and so resolve what has been called *le malaise enseignant*.

The cost could only be met by an unlikely decision to reduce expenditure in other headings of the national budget and some virement between the two regions. There is therefore little hope of the independent schools achieving the financial parity they desire with the state sector, though they may expect rather more-favoured nation treatment in Flanders than in Wallonia. The price of the very real equality of opportunity to choose which is the key-stone of the Belgian system may well be a further loss of the ability to experiment and innovate.

BELGIUM



1. Compulsory education covers twelve years, from 6 to 18 years of age. It is full-time up to 15 years of age; those who have completed at least the first two years of secondary education and do not wish to continue full-time until 18 may then follow part-time compulsory education. Pupils who have not completed 2 years of secondary education must attend full-time compulsory education until 16 years of age.
2. TYPE I (or «renovated» education comprises secondary education at lower and upper secondary levels, organized in four forms - general, technical, vocational and artistic education - and two main streams, one leading primarily to higher education, the other primarily to employment.
   TYPE II (or «traditional» education comprises secondary education at lower and upper secondary levels comprising general, technical or vocational sections.
   Type I education is being extended to nearly all schools (except a few «free» schools in the Dutch-speaking Community).
3. A preparatory year for higher education or a year of specialization or further education for employment after 6 years of secondary education.
4. Part-time education is available to 15 or 16 year olds and covers the last years of compulsory schooling. It lasts 360 hours in the first year (for 15/16 year olds) and 240 hours in the following years.
5. The theoretical training of apprenticeship lasts the same time (360 hours in the 1st year and 240 hours in the following two years) as part-time education.
6. Industrial apprenticeship lasts 6 months to 2 years and can take place in several forms successively.
   The Work Training Agreement is available to 18 to 25 year olds and lasts 256 hours when provided by an employer and 500 hours when followed in a training establishment.

Division in the level/type of education

Alternative beginning or end of level/type of education

Denmark

The national background and constitutional safeguards

The tradition of independent education in Denmark is of long standing and reflects deep convictions about liberty of choice and respect for individual views and beliefs which have long manifested themselves in many different aspects of Danish life. Grundtvig's folk high school movement, which began in the 1840s, while originally designed mainly for young adults from rural areas, inspired the foundation by Kristen Kold of a new pattern of independent school in 1851 from which there developed an independent sector whose legality as an alternative system of education during the compulsory years is confirmed in Article 76 of the Constitution of June 5th, 1949 and subsequent revisions. The Article establishes the right of parents and guardians to provide education comparable to but outside the public system either in an independent school or at home.

Education is compulsory for nine years. All schools are coeducational under Danish law.

In the State system, where responsibility is largely devolved to local authorities, *Folkeskolen*, which is peculiar to Denmark, provides nine years of compulsory primary and lower secondary education with an optional tenth year for those who do not go on to a three-year higher secondary course at a *gymnasium* and either leave school or begin vocational training. *Folkeskoler* are fully comprehensive and class teaching is the rule. Teachers often remain with the same class throughout the early stages of a pupil's course. Pupils are promoted automatically year by year without reference to performance and group teaching is normal at all stages without streaming by ability. Schools and individual teachers are free to plan their own educational programme, including syllabus content, teaching times and methods provided they conform to guidelines laid down centrally by the Ministry and are approved by a Municipal Council acting as Local Education Authority, of which there are 175 in all. They are, however, required to include Danish, maths, PE and religious studies in the curriculum at all stages. Leavers take the Ministry leaving examination—*folkeskolens afgangsprøver (LE)* and there is a more advanced examination (*ALE*) for those who stay for the 10th year. There is no pass mark and pupils have some free choice of which and how many subjects they take. The government has now begun a process of decentralisation of control except in broad outline which has much in common with policy in other European countries. Elected School Councils, which are now compulsory, consist of a majority of 7 parents with voting rights, and 2 teachers and 2 pupils who participate without the right to vote unless the Municipal Authority grants permission. 88% of nominated teachers and 47% of pupils were so authorised in 1990.

As in other countries there has been increasing public criticism of progressive methods in recent years and something of a return to the three Rs and basic studies as well as an increase in transfers to the independent system.

After the ninth or tenth year the more academically able go on to a *gymnasium* for a three-year academic course leading to the *Studentereksamen* which admits, though no longer of right, to higher education or take the *H.F.eksamen* after two years; while the majority of *folkeskole* leavers transfer to a wide range of technical or vocational courses. Technical and commercial schools are self-governing and subsidised from public funds.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. Controls and financial aid

Successive Danish governments have legislated to ensure impartial financial support to independent schools of all types, all educational philosophies and all religious beliefs provided they reach adequate standards comparable to those of state schools. This aid goes not only to pre-primary and primary schools, the unique *folkeskoler* (nine-year comprehensives for children aged 7-16) and *gymnasier* (upper secondary schools) but also to technical and commercial schools and establishments which have no equivalent in the state sector. These latter include folk high schools, *(folkehoyskoler)*, agricultural schools, continuation schools *(efterskoler)* and home economics schools, all of which are boarding schools.

Independent primary and secondary schools receive on average 75% of operational expenditure, including salaries. The subsidy is based on pupil costs in equivalent state schools adjusted for inflation. Schools are required to supply financial statements and registers to the Ministry in support of their claims and to conform to government rules for the employment and payment of teachers. Until recently they have been able to apply to a limited government fund for indefinite loans at 4% interest for up to 45% of the cost of capital projects and could recover much of the interest payments via the subsidy.

To qualify for help in founding a school a group of parents or interested persons must show that they have suitable premises, have appointed a principal, can muster at least 12 pupils for the first year and 20 for the second and can contribute adequately to costs not covered by the subsidy. Before a provisional grant is awarded, their buildings must also satisfy local building and safety requirements.

The government sets aside a fund of DK14m a year for financial aid to the less well-off during the years of compulsory education.

2. Statistics

To-day approximately 10% of the total population in the compulsory age group from 7 to 16 attend independent schools of different types, compared with 6.7% in 1973, though at gymnasium and higher commercial level numbers have dropped by more than half as the state system has expanded. There are now 425 independent schools at primary and lower secondary level with 66,931 pupils, compared with 351 in 1981; and there are also 20 *gymnasier*. Distribution of these is uneven and schools tend to be concentrated in the capital, Copenhagen, and in urban areas. Dissatisfaction with the folkeskole, the closing of small schools and the growing popularity of the independent schools, including less formally organised Free Schools or *Lilleskoler*, account for the increased total at primary and lower secondary level.

3. Management and control

Independent schools are normally founded by groups of parents to meet their special education interests (e.g. Kold, Montessori, Steiner, Frenet, Summerhill methods, etc.) or to serve a confessional, political or philosophical group. By law independent schools must not be profit-making but there are still three profit-making primary schools. Each school enjoys full liberty of choice of educational programme and methods. The neutrality of government allows state support for socialist and Marxist-based schools alongside confessional schools and ethnic establishments, such as the Muslim school in Copenhagen and schools for the German minority in southern Jutland. Government subsidies, which include the salaries of teaching and administrative staff, are negotiated by the independent schools' umbrella organisation, *Frie Grundskolers*

Fællesråd. Salary scales and terms of service are the same as those in state schools. FGF's umbrella covers the following associations, which represent the different sections of the independent sector: *Danmarks Realskoleforening*, *Dansk Friskoleforening*, *Deutscher Schul- und Sprachverein für Nordschleswig*, *Landesforening til opprettelse af Kristne Friskoler*, *Forening af katolske skoler in Danmark*, *Forening af private selvejende Gymnasieskoler* and the independent teachers union, *Frie Grundskolers Lærerforening*. As well as negotiating with government on their behalf and acting as distributor of government subsidies, FGF also provides management and other services.

4. Educational programmes and methods

Many independent schools are all-through from pre-primary and primary to lower secondary level like the state *folkeskole* and follow more or less the same kind of programme and examinations. Others, like Steiner and Montessori schools, have different programmes and tests. Some schools are restricted to the primary stage alone. As stated above 20 provide *gymnasium* courses and one of these in Copenhagen also has a teacher-training college whose students are funded by government and a practice school on the premises. Some 118 independent primary and secondary schools have boarding sections. A few of them, notably *Soro* and *Herlufsholm Kosteskole og Gymnasium* are old and highly esteemed foundations with something in common with the older English 'public' schools. Many boarding places are taken up and paid for by local authorities for children from broken homes or with some other special need.

Schools are free to appoint their own staff without restrictions about qualifications, except at gymnasium level where they must satisfy state requirements. Most independent *gymnasier* are part of all-through schools with primary and lower secondary departments. In general they are very similar in programme and methods to their state equivalents while many independent primary schools attract those who are dissatisfied with the state system or wish for a different approach and are therefore more individualistic. Most schools follow a syllabus similar to that used in *folkeskolen* with considerable variation in choice of subjects. Some *friskoler* and *Steinerskoler* do not use the state examination system, while many accept it with reluctance on grounds of principle. *Realskolener*, which have a separate association, *Danmarks Realskoleforeningen*, like the examinations and follow more or less the same subject patterns as *folkeskoler*.

In schools whose curriculum is not directed to state patterns pupils are required to reach a standard at least equivalent to the results obtained in a state school. How this standard is reached, for example by the organisation of the curriculum and its contents, is the responsibility of the parents in all kinds of independent school. For certain important subjects, Danish, mathematics and English, the parents are required to choose a 'public supervisor' to ensure that the compulsory standard is reached by the pupils and that these subjects are properly studied by all pupils. If they do not fulfil this requirement supervision is arranged by the local authority.

After the ninth or tenth class pupils either go on to a *gymnasium* course or begin vocational training. The school retains the final right of decision about admission to advanced work, pupils being classified as acceptable, possible or unsuitable, as in the state system. The gymnasium sections of independent schools have on average 300-400 pupils as against 600-800 in state schools and about 45% of their pupils are boys, a normal ratio for Denmark. About 50% of pupils go on to higher education with the necessary qualifications.

Of the denominational schools 24 are Catholic, most of them large and in areas where Catholics were originally concentrated, though the majority of their intake does not come from Catholic homes. Confessional Protestant schools are less numerous and not strongly denominational, but most Danish schools are Protestant in background. As in other countries there is a body of Evangelical Free Church Schools whose programme is strictly bible-based. Teachers in independent schools have their own union which is on good terms with its state equivalents. There are no restrictions on the employment of teachers in independent schools and it is clear that, with characteristic Danish individualism, general character and personality is often felt to be more important than certificates and diplomas. Salaries are not dependent on the kind of qualifications held except in the gymnasium.

5. **Fees and Costs**

Fees for most day pupils range from DK3,500 to DK10,000 with a median fee of about DK6,500 and are very modest compared with unsubsidised schools in the UK. Boarders in the boarding sections *(Kostafdelinger)* of the 18 or so partly boarding schools pay on average about DK70,000 per annum. Most schools provide funds for bursaries or free places for low-income parents, in some cases by asking all parents to pay a small surcharge, to supplement any monies they receive from the government bursary fund of DK14m.

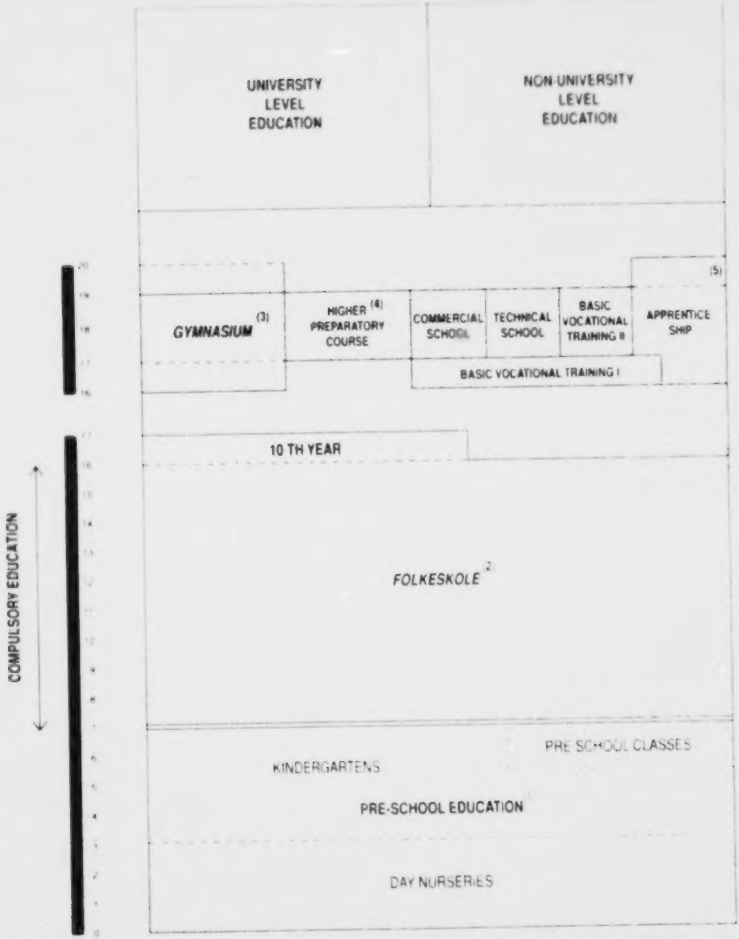
6. **The status and future of independent schools**

Nowhere in Europe is the role of independent schools and their importance in maintaining freedom of parental choice and of the right to pursue different educational goals and beliefs which are essential for true democracy more firmly established than in Denmark. The liberal and tolerant attitudes which are native to Danish society and which found their first expression in Grundvig's folk high schools, with their insistence on residential courses free from academic restraints and designed to promote social understanding and patriotism, have helped to establish independent enterprise as a virtually undisputed and welcome element in the national provision of education, so ensuring the citizen's right to choose and establish schools and colleges representing every kind of creed and philosophy. In good measure this is due to the sedulous neutrality of government in giving generous aid to free schools of all kinds.

As a result there is almost no sign of left-wing opposition to independent schools in a country which is in any case firmly anchored in centrist political beliefs, though the Labour Party is now somewhat less friendly in attitude and, like its counterpart in Sweden, might favour a test of faith for those wishing to use a private school. Occasionally hostility occurs, for example amongst school administrators in rural areas, because state schools cannot refuse difficult children while independent schools can pick and choose. Class divisions are not much in evidence in a society which is remarkably democratic and fiercely defends the right of personal choice. There is nothing incompatible between the use of independent education and the profession of, for example, socialist beliefs, and indeed a particular independent school may be chosen because of the socialist or other values which inform its methods. While most pupils come from middle- and lower-middle-class homes, the modest fees required to supplement the government grant encourage working-class parents who value independent education to economise in order to afford it, often by giving up a car or tobacco. The government free place fund for children in years 1 – 10 also helps to broaden recruitment. Nevertheless there is a feeling amongst supporters of independent schools that if their proportion of the national school population rises much beyond 10%, where it now stands, they might face increasing criticism. As

it is, the more academic schools, with their selected and well-motivated clientele, are seen as privileged because they naturally achieve better results in terms of admission to higher education than do many state schools; but it is important to emphasise that many schools, especially the smaller and experimental ones, concentrate on programmes which are less formal and academic than those in the state system, while state schools, like their equivalents in the UK, with whom they share considerable freedom to shape their own time-tables and methods, must still conform to a pattern set by central government. There is little evidence that going to an independent school gives any direct social advantages in career or life generally apart from the natural ones of a good home background and education; and there is little fear that either government policy or public opinion in favour of choice in education will change radically in the foreseeable future, though the issues of privilege and standards are the subject of lively debate in a society which sets great store both on individual liberty and equality of opportunity. The greatest danger to the independent schools is that for a small country with limited resources it will become increasingly difficult to finance a welfare economy which, as it is, imposes a crushingly high burden of taxation on the individual citizen to achieve its social goals and that as a result independent education will become increasingly expensive and exclusive. This is one reason for the government's decision in January 1990 to set up a Commission to report on the financing of independent *grundskoler*, with a membership consisting of representatives of the associations in membership of FGF and of the Ministry. The Committee's proposals have been accepted by 7 of the 8 associations involved and by the government and have been submitted to the *Folketing* for legislative approval. They will provide for a new model of subsidy giving greater parity with the public system, but will make the founding of new independent schools harder, since government is anxious that public schools should not be easily able to opt for independence. It will also reflect impending changes in terms of service for teachers.

DENMARK



1. In pre-school education there are several institutions catering consecutively or alternatively for the 0 to 6/7 year age range.
2. The *Folkeskole* comprises an optional pre-school class, nine years of full-time compulsory education and a supplementary optional tenth year. It provides general education at primary and lower secondary levels; the Danish education system does not differentiate between primary and lower secondary education.
3. The *Gymnasium* provides a 3 year course of general education at upper secondary level, after the ninth or tenth year of the *Folkeskole*, with the final examination qualifying for university entrance.
4. The Higher Preparatory Course (*HF*) is a 2 year general course, after the 10th year of the *Folkeskole*, with the final examination qualifying for further and higher education.
5. Apprenticeship training lasts between 3 and 4 years depending on the sector.

division of the level/type of education

alternative beginning or end of level/type of education

France

The national background

After more than two centuries of fierce dispute between clericals and anti-clericals, marked only by occasional attempts at compromise and an increasingly strong hold over education by the State through centralised control of curriculum, teachers and examinations, General De Gaulle in 1958 set about democratising and re-structuring a highly élitist system which was overwhelmingly biassed towards the humanities to match the needs of a technological age and of individual talents. He invited the independent, largely Catholic schools to become partners with the State in the new enterprise at a time when they were very hard pressed financially. This process of renewal culminated in the Haby reforms of 1975 which were intended to replace separate, selective kinds of secondary education from 11 to 15 by what were termed *collèges uniques*. In principle these are comprehensive middle schools but are streamed in the second two years, the less academically able being diverted into pre-vocational classes or being forced to repeat. At the end of the course pupils sit for the *brevet des collèges*. Compulsory education ceases at sixteen and may include a year in one of the types of lycée. Pupils who are judged by their teachers to qualify go on to three-year academic courses in a *lycée* or a *lycée d'enseignement professionnelle (LEP)*, nominally though not in fact of equal status. Those who complete the course sit for one of the many subject combinations now available in the extended *baccalauréat* which includes technical and vocational subjects. The present Minister of Education, M. Jospin, has set an optimistic target of 80% entrance to the enlarged *bac* which gives automatic entry to higher education, where as a result the failure and drop-out rates are already high. In what is still a highly centralised and élitist system the most able, who are aiming at the *grandes écoles*, overwhelmingly opt for science and mathematics as their specialist combination in the examination. For those who opt for vocational training at a lower level there is the *Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnel* after two years study at a LEP. Central control of education has been only marginally modified by recent attempts at decentralisation to regional and communal level and by gestures towards greater parental involvement in decisions.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. The legal and constitutional position

The principle of freedom in education under French law, which was reconfirmed in the Constitution of 1958 as one of the fundamental principles of the Republic alongside the requirement that the public system should be both free and lay at all stages, has been repeatedly upheld by court judgements, notably by a decision of the Constitutional Council in November 1977. France is a signatory of the various international and European declarations of human rights. This has not prevented the continuation of the long-standing *guerre scolaire* between anti-clerical politicians and teachers unions and the Catholic Church—a war which, as will be explained in section 5, is still endemic in French society.

De Gaulle's offer of partnership to the independent sector within the national pattern of education, involving for the first time subsidy from public funds, was embodied in two laws which form the legal basis of the present relationship of the vast majority of independent schools with the State—the *Loi Debré* of 1st December, 1959

(59/1557) and the *Loi Guermeur* of 1977. In its first Article the *Loi Debré* guaranteed the independence of all private schools subject to unobjectionable minimum controls and went on to provide for partial subsidies to those which chose to accept one of two types of contract involving a degree of state control of curriculum, staffing and examinations. It also began a process, continued by the *Loi Guermeur*, of ensuring parity of salaries and pensions in state and independent schools. The acceptance of either contract *(contrat simple/contrat d'association)* required schools to guarantee liberty of conscience to all pupils and to admit them without distinction of origin, opinion or belief.

To qualify for *contrat simple*, which since 1980 has been available only to primary schools and applies to about half of their total numbers, a school must normally have been in existence for five years. The Head retains the right to appoint his own staff, who must have equivalent qualifications to those of teachers in similar schools in the state sector but are employed by the school. Pupil numbers must also conform to state norms. Provided the conditions are fulfilled, acceptance by the Ministry is automatic. In return the State pays the cost of salaries including social taxes, and running expenses may by agreement be subsidised by a friendly local authority, though these are increasingly rare.

For *association*, schools at both levels must fulfil the same conditions as for the *contrat simple* and meet a 'recognised need' *(besoin scolaire reconnu)* in their foundation purposes—for example, a Christian or a Montessori philosophy of education. Recognition may therefore be and has been disputed. Government subsidy *(forfait d'externat)* includes in addition to teachers' salaries a capitation fee per pupil for running expenses and the cost of salaries of non-teaching personnel based on equivalent costs in state schools. Teachers become public servants employed under personal contract by the state and are appointed on the Head's nomination by the regional *Recteur d'Académie*, who can nominate candidates if the school fails to find suitable ones. Schools must work in accordance with state curricula and time-tables. Schools under both types of contract are subject to control by the inspectorate and public audit.

The immensely complicated details of the controls involved in the contracts are analysed and explained in *La Liberté de l'Enseignement—Guide Juridique de l'Enseignement privé associé à l'Etat par contrat. Nicole Fontaine. Unapec. 1978.*

Aided schools under contract, being non-profit making *(sans but lucratif)*, are exempted from all taxes and other independent schools are exempt from VAT.

2. Statistics

a) *Numbers*

According to *Repères et références statistiques 1991* published by the National Ministry of Education as reported in *Le Monde de l'éducation, octobre 1991*, the independent sector as a whole accounts for some two million pupils in primary and secondary schools as against more than ten millions in the public sector or roughly 16.6%. Ministry sources further report that 13.4% of all primary pupils, 20.1% of those attending *collèges* and 19% of *lycéens* attend independent schools, figures which show a modest decline from those of 15%, 20% and 23% respectively in 1986/7 recorded in the European Unit of Eurydice's Report prepared for the European Commission in 1989. This decline followed a modest upturn in the previous decade.

A more marked decline has shown itself in enrolments in independent nursery schools *(écoles maternelles)* where state provision has been continually expanded. They enrolled some 306,100 pupils in 390 schools in 1988/9 or 13.9% of the total at this level.

The proportion of pupils in vocational and technical as opposed to academic courses at upper secondary level at the same date was even in both sectors at about 38.5% of the total enrolment but in the *collèges* is strongly weighted to the public sector.

The national figures disguise very marked regional variations in the proportion of pupils in independent schools. The school regions *(académies)* of Rennes, Nantes, and Paris have more than 28% of their pupils in independent secondary schools compared with an average of about 20%, whereas in areas like those of Dijon, Strasbourg, Limoges, Nice and Montpellier numbers are far below this figure. The regions of Lyons and Clermont-Ferrand are also strong in independent schools and in the department of the Maine-et-Loire 42% of all pupils attend Catholic schools.

In the country as a whole Catholic schools educate 95% of the pupils in the subsidised independent sector. The remainder consists mainly of lay schools under contract, which have their own associations (see section 5 below).

About 4% of all independent school pupils attend unsubsidised schools overall, though they account for 11% of the total in the final stages of the lycée course according to an article in *Le Monde de l'éducation No 184* for July and August 1991. Many of these schools specialise in remedial or crash courses for pupils who have fallen behind in the state system or wish to improve their examination performance. Those providing coaching for the final examination are popularly known as *boîtes à bac*.

b) ***Fees and subsidies***

Schools under contract at each level are allowed to charge a modest fee to supplement the government subsidy and any municipal or communal grants they receive. It is limited by their contract to cover the cost of religious instruction, loan charges, equipment and a building reserve. At primary level this means an average fee of FF600 per annum in the Nantes region compared with FF2,300 in a suburb of Paris. Fees at secondary level vary comparably but are somewhat higher on average. Most Catholic schools scale their charges according to parental means or invite voluntary supplements and 'extras' like meals, school transport and supervised preparation are expensive in comparison with the public sector. Some scholarships or bursaries may be provided for the less well-off.

Fees in unsubsidised cram schools may be as high as FF30,000 per annum. Many schools, especially Catholic ones, have boarding hostels and provision for day-boarders and charge accordingly.

3. The Catholic Schools

Catholic education at all levels, including the five Catholic Universities, 25 Training Colleges for primary teachers, 12 Institutes for lower secondary teachers and a host of agricultural schools (which cater for 60% of this kind of vocational education) is co-ordinated by the National Committee for Catholic Education (CNEC). Their headquarters in the rue St.-Jacques in Paris, sometimes called the second Ministry of Education, shelters a number of organisations of Catholic parents, teachers, governors, parliamentarians and educationalists who form a powerful lobby and source of propaganda with an extensive network to back them at regional level. Its political clout, backed by the Catholic hierarchy, was well demonstrated in 1984 when the Socialist Minister of Education attempted to zone recruitment and otherwise to diminish the autonomy of schools under contract. Up to 2,000,000 supporters of Catholic schools demonstrated on the streets of Paris and many more in Lyons and other regional centres, forcing the government to back down. CNEC also provides full legal and pedagogical advisory services for Catholic schools and undertakes research.

Amongst its most notable enterprises was the foundation in the late seventies of UNAPEC *(Union Nationale pour la Promotion Pédagogique et Professionnelle de l'Enseignement Catholique)* to coordinate initial and in-service training of teachers in Catholic schools. The government in 1979 agreed to subsidise the training of Catholic teachers through UNAPEC by a renewable annual grant to give them parity with teachers in state schools but this, as will be seen in section 5 below, remains alongside other matters a bone of contention with government, which has failed to revise it upwards to match inflation in recent years.

CNEC is thus very well-placed to promote the Catholic pattern of Christian education which the faithful cherish and which appeals to many non-Catholics who prefer its ambience to that of the strictly secular schools in the state system and are free to apply for admission under the terms of the contract.

The schools vary greatly both in resources, in standards and in the services they provide. Some, especially those at primary level, are under parochial or diocesan control and others are owned and managed by religious orders. Many are all-through schools combining all three levels of education. According to R. Ballion *(Les consommateurs d'école*, Paris: Pernoud/Stock, 1982) they fall into five types—schools of academic excellence, mainly for boys from upper class homes; less selective and less academic mainly girls schools again serving the upper classes; 'substitution' schools which provide a refuge from the turmoils of the public system at the cost of less good results; some innovative, mainly primary schools which appeal to progressive parents; and refuge schools in working-class areas. Their appeal as a group, while stemming in principle from their Catholic foundation purposes, thus extends to an increasing number of non-Catholics who are dissatisfied with or whose children fall behind in the public system or who feel that they provide the best way of acquiring educational capital in the shape of qualifications on which success in the modern world increasingly turns.

Fewer than 10% of teachers are now in orders but most are professed Catholics and up to the late eighties 34% of primary and 42% of secondary heads were monks or nuns. Results achieved in the 'bac', with the exception of the those in the 'top' schools, are in general somewhat below those of state schools, especially in the sciences. In general terms their popularity, like that of Catholic schools in other countries, is more for their religious and educational ideals, their disciplined community life and the involvement therein of pupils, staff and parents and the quality of the teaching staff. Furthermore, since fees are negligible and many schools are in downtown areas, they offer a choice of independent education whose essentials are accessible to rich and poor alike.

4. **Other groups of independent schools**

During the eighties a mixed group of schools which included subsidised language, international, experimental and Montessori schools alongside *lycées* like the sought-after Parisian *École Alsacienne* formed *La Fédération Nationale des Écoles Privées Laïque sous Contrat avec l'État*, and claims a pupil total of some 200,000. These schools share with their Catholic colleagues the advantages and disadvantages of the state contract and attract those who do not care for confessional schools.

Other non-confessional independent schools, some 2,000 in number, belong to *La Fédération Nationale de l'Enseignement Privé Laïque*. Almost all are entirely dependent on fees. A third are in the Paris region and although they include primary and secondary schools conforming to the official patterns many of them are coaching

establishments for dropouts from the state or the subsidised systems or provide crash courses for examinations. Others are specialist schools of dance, gymnastics, commerce and the like. Their academic results are somewhat less good than those of the aided schools.

There are also ten Steiner schools with their own association.

5. The status and prospects of the independent sector

The introduction of subsidy by contract under the *loi Debré* gave the Catholic schools and their lay equivalents an assured role in the national system of education and helped them to recruit widely from all social groups who shared their ideals. Despite continued attack from the left and the anti-clericals they are stronger than ever before, though they have not achieved the full partnership offered by Debré or full equality of opportunity irrespective of parental income. The latter, as the Catholic authorities are quick to point out, can only be fully realised if financial hurdles are done away with by the provision of subsidies equivalent to full costs. Experience has shown, however, that this, especially under a Socialist regime, would bring with it further loss of freedom to set their own patterns and standards, as was shown by the unsuccessful attempt at zoning and restriction on expansion to meet rising demands for places in the eighties. Though they have been forced to adopt the reformed pattern of secondary education as a condition of subsidy and must conform to the state curriculum and examinations, they remain free to be coeducational or single-sex, to choose their own teaching methods and to set their own educational goals and philosophy. For the confessional schools who form the majority and the small number of good 'lay' schools this results in greater stress on the school as a community in which the individual can learn to develop not only his brain but his social and emotional attitudes and beliefs. The involvement of parents and pupils in the community and their commitment alongside the staff to the educational goals for which the school stands ensure a sense of purpose and direction which attracts thoughtful parents of all types in France just as in other European countries. There is here a very real contrast with the state system whose highly unionised teachers concentrate on academic instruction of a formal kind and do not willingly accept pastoral responsibilities.

Furthermore the schools themselves are better placed than those in the state system to adapt to what may be called market influences and to cater for a wide range of parental requirements ranging from that of broad cultural and religious development to the assurance at all cost of success in examinations. Indeed they can point to real and growing support from parents, many of whom became disenchanted with the state system after the student unrest of 1968 in which secondary pupils joined, as they have done more recently to demand changes in the financing and organisation of the *lycée* system. Public opinion polls confirm not only this parental preference but an overwhelming conviction, demonstrated for example by 80% of the sample polled after President Mitterand's election, that choice and freedom in education as established in law and in the Declarations of Human Rights are essential ingredients of democracy. Nearly 70% were also in favour of maintaining or increasing financial aid for independent education. Nevertheless, the dominance of confessional schools in the independent sector and the strength of anti-clerical radicalism inherent in French society combine to keep alive the smouldering *guerre scolaire*.

President Mitterand's successive governments in the eighties have continued to proclaim their objective of 'a great, unified, lay, public, national educational system' and have done what they could to shackle the independent schools by administrative restrictions and refusal of funds for expansion. Minister of Education Savary's defeat

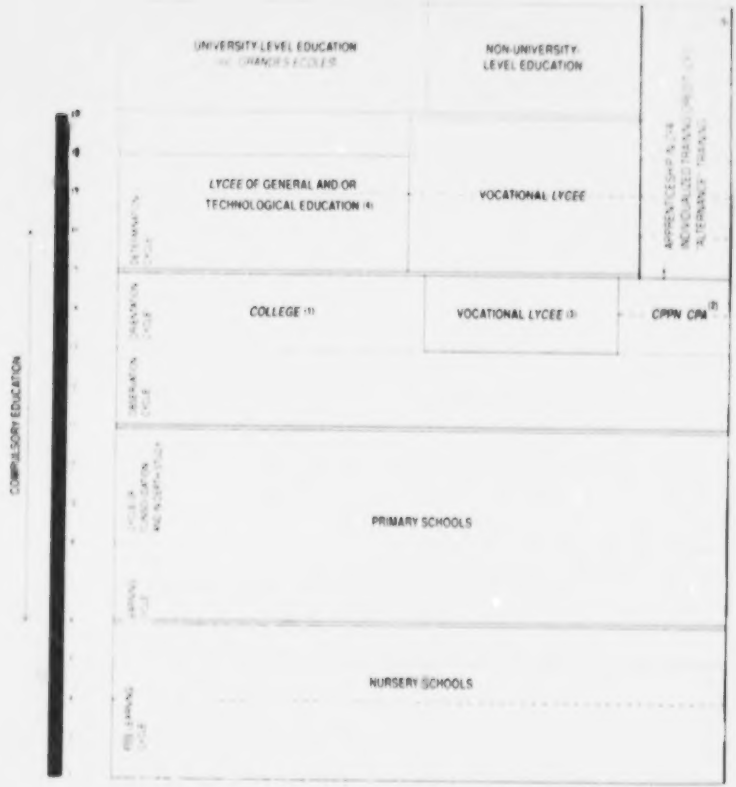
and subsequent dismissal as a result of the massive demonstrations organised by the Catholics and their allies in July 1984 leave a number of unresolved disputes. The latest attempt at government interference, though it has some validity in social terms in a society which has adopted *le week-end*, proposed the abolition of Saturday morning school in primary schools at the cost of the free Wednesday at present allotted to religious instruction, only to be defeated again by the strength of the hierarchy and its supporters, though some schools have accepted the transfer of religious education from Wednesday to Saturday in deference to parental pressure.

On their side, the independent schools and the parents' organisation, UNAPEL, complain bitterly of Government's refusal since 1983 to update the rate of government subsidy to compensate for inflation and other increased costs, to the detriment of their efficiency, and of its refusal to allow teachers to be trained for the independent sector in the new University Training Institutes it is establishing. Government has now agreed to pay an extra FF60m for the current year and has opened discussions about earlier deficits.

In estimating the role and importance of the independent sector in France it is necessary to bear in mind how much the independent schools have already needed to adapt to changing times. While in numerical terms they educate some 17% of the primary and secondary school population, recent research by two French sociologists, Gabriel Langouët and Alain Léger, claims that 37% of all pupils spend some time in the independent sector during their school career and now outnumber those who opt for it from the beginning. Transfer often results from delayed promotion *(redoublement)* in a state school and depends to some extent on social class; but at the beginning of secondary education it is usually the result of conscious choice in favour of the smaller size, intimacy and discipline of an independent school. The researchers claim that those who benefit most in terms of results from such transfers are the children of working-class families.

In France as elsewhere in Europe the independent schools both confessional and lay are learning to adapt their educational philosophies to the demands of their increasingly pluralist societies without surrendering the standards and the beliefs they cherish. The Catholics, who dominate independent education in France, with their colleagues in Europe generally, are well aware of the challenge and have already done much to adapt their approach. France is still, however, dominated by two monolithic systems, each under stress. For the future, much will depend firstly on the degree of success achieved in the much-needed reform of the centrally dominated state school system and the extent to which its administrators can be brought effectively to devolve responsibility not only to regional level but to individual schools and the parents who use them; secondly on a broadening of range in the independent sector to allow a wider choice of educational philosophies to parents; and thirdly on a wider recognition of the importance of stimulating variety of choice for parents irrespective of means and of freedom for schools to set educational goals to ensure the stability of an increasingly pluralist society. To achieve this requires not only administrative adaptability and greater political sensitivity but the acceptance by society generally of kinds of excellence other than those embodied in the *grandes écoles*.

FRANCE



1. The *College* provides general education at lower secondary level leading after 4 years to the national certificate (*Brevet*). After 2 years (5th class) pupils can choose another form of training, the *CPPN*, *CPA* or the 4th class of the Vocational *Lycee* (see below).
2. *CPPN* (*Classes Preprofessionnelles de Niveau*) : pre-vocational classes : accept pupils of 14 years of age who cannot enter the first year of the 3 year Vocational Aptitude Certificate (*CAP*) for 1 or 2 years.
   CPA (*Classes Preparatoires a l'Apprentissage*) : preparatory apprenticeship classes : accept pupils of 15 years of age who cannot enter the first year of the 3 year Vocational Aptitude Certificate (*CAP*) for 1 or 2 years.
3. The Vocational *Lycee* is an institution of secondary education providing vocational training at different levels. It accepts pupils who have completed 2 years (5th class) or 4 years (3rd class) at a *College* or who are at least 14 years of age, or who come from the *CPPN* or *CPA*. Pupils prepare for the Vocational Aptitude Certificate (*CAP*) or the Vocational Studies Certificate (*BEP*), both of which lead to skilled jobs.
4. The General and/or Technological *Lycee* provides upper secondary education leading to higher education or employment. Pupils prepare for the General *Baccalauréat* which usually leads to higher education, the Technological *Baccalauréat* (*B Tn*) which leads either to employment or higher education, or the Technical Certificate (*BT*) which usually leads to employment.
5. These courses can be entered at any age between 16 and 25.
   Apprenticeship training lasts 2 to 3 years.
   Individualized training credit (*CFI*) is available to young people who have left school without a vocational qualification. The content and duration of the course vary according to the chosen target certificate.
   Alternance training: qualification contracts last 6 months minimum, 24 months maximum; adaptation contracts last 6 months minimum; and introduction to working life (*SIVP*) lasts 3 to 6 months.

division in the level/type of education
alternative beginning or end of level/type of education

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The German Federal Republic

The national background

The Federal Republic of West Germany absorbed the German Democratic Republic, the DDR, in October 1990, adding five new länder to its own eleven partially but proudly independent regional authorities and increasing the total population to more than 80 million. The enlarged Bundestag is preoccupied with the task of adapting the Grundgesetz, West Germany's Constitution, which established a federal state in West Germany in 1949, to the needs of the whole country without in any way diluting the strongly democratic principles which underlie it. The account of German independent education which follows is a description of its role and effectiveness in the former Western Länder, but there is already strong evidence that their Eastern equivalents will adopt a similar pattern and that Western Educational Law, suitably adapted, is replacing the Communist patterns of the past.

Each Land is, under the Constitution, responsible for enacting its own educational legislation and planning and administering its educational policies through the responsible Minister of Education and Cultural Affairs. The quite considerable differences between regions are mainly a reflection of the different views of the opposing political parties and the strength of their influence in the regional parliaments but they also stem from differences in cultural background. Nevertheless, they have all been much influenced by the traditionally centralised and hierarchical pattern of control and administration by government which was reintroduced at the end of hostilities in the forties and still militates against the liberalisation and decentralisation which, in Germany as elsewhere, is increasingly called for by the educational community and the public at large. It may well be that the revised Constitution, when it is agreed, will to some extent at least abandon the right of total control of education by the State, allow for devolution of authority to schools, parents and pupils and free teacher in state schools from the restrictions imposed by their status as civil servants; but so far attempts at legal reform to permit devolution have come to nothing in the face of legal opposition by jurists and politicians.

Some measure of uniformity and cooperation between the Länder has been achieved through the agency of the Standing Conference of Education Ministers of the Länder *(Kultusministerkonferenz, KMK)* which has a secretariat in Bonn and a number of sub-committees for different areas of education. From 1964 onwards the central government and the Länder have agreed on a common pattern of schools and curricula and some degree of change designed to broaden opportunity and remove discrimination—e.g. the attempted introduction of a two-year 'orientation course' common to all kinds of secondary course. Primary education is from 6 to 10, followed by compulsory secondary education to 16 and three further years of part-time education for those who do not continue full-time in a *Gymnasium* or technical college. A programme of reform of secondary education from 9+ to 16+ on comprehensive lines was set out in a 'Structural Plan for Education' in 1973 by the Federal Education Advisory Commission. This aroused much criticism from both Radicals and Conservatives but some experiments in comprehensive schooling *(Gesamtschule)* from 10 to 16 have taken place, and in Länder under left-wing (SPD) control like Hamburg this is now the normal pattern. Many educationalists and parents are unconvinced about its advantages and are still content with the traditional separation of secondary

education into separate streams—*Gymnasium* from 10 to 19+ leading to University; *Realschule* from 10 to 16, somewhat equivalent to a technical school; and the increasingly unpopular *Hauptschule* or Secondary Modern School from 10 to 15+, which nevertheless allows some possibility of transfer for late-developers to more advanced vocational training. At the end of the gymnasium course pupils who pass the *Abitur* qualify for university *(Hochschule)* and other forms of higher education of similar level and there is an elaborate network of full and part-time vocational courses for those whose academic education ceases at 16, some of which also qualify for tertiary vocational, technical and professional education. For details see the accompanying diagram.

As in France and other countries, the uniform traditional 13-subject gymnasium course, which proved too demanding for many of the increasing numbers of pupils who wished to qualify for higher education, gave place in the 70s to a modular system with options around a common core, somewhat to the dissatisfaction of the universities, who could no longer count on appropriate qualifications in the *Abitur* for admission to particular courses. There has been a further demand in the last year or so for a shortening of the gymnasium course by one year so that Germans may enter the labour market after graduation at a comparable age to their competitors in other European countries—a move which is strongly opposed by supporters of—as they see it—the successful traditional pattern. According to M. Weiss *(Educational Expansion and Reform in the FDR 1987)* 28% of 13-year-olds in 1986 attended *Gymnasien*, 36% *Hauptschulen*, 26% *Realschulen* and 5% *Gesamtschulen*.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. Constitutional and legal position

The sector covers a wide range of educational institutions at all levels some of which fall outside the present enquiry. The independent schools proper (termed either *Privatschulen* or *Freie Schulen)* are exceptional among their counterparts in the extent of support and protection assured to them by the Constitution, a support which stems from the passionate devotion of the founders of the Federal Republic to the preservation of democratic freedom of choice and mutually supportive pluralism in the educational system.

In Article 7 the *Grundgesetz* or Basic Law specially guarantees for all regions, amongst other things, public inspection of schools, the establishment of religious education as a required subject and the right of existence of independent schools. Section 4 of this Article goes on to state that 'private' schools which are 'comparable to schools in the public system and supplement it' (whence their name—*Ersatzschulen*) must be officially licensed and are subject to state law. A licence *(Genehmigung)* may not be refused provided the school satisfies a number of requirements about its aims, premises and the qualifications and terms of service of its staff. An important further requirement, which has proved to be of major consequence, is that *there must be no separation of pupils by reason of parental means*. In 1951 the Standing Conference of Education Ministers (KMK) promoted a correlated policy for independent schools based on Article 7 which greatly influenced legislation in the Länder and ensured that, despite differences in educational law and its application, many schools recognized as *Ersatzschulen* and following either a state pattern or one acceptable to the authorities received subsidies from public funds. In 1987 the Federal Court reconfirmed earlier decisions that this assistance was in fact a right stemming

from the anti-divisive clause in Article 7.3 of the Constitution, a ruling which has up to now not been challenged, though the extent of subsidy tends to vary with the political colour of the Land government.

More recently, in the face of increasing economic pressures and lowered subsidies resulting in increased fees, the Courts have debated claims that private school fees of more than at most DM100 a month are in fact socially divisive but also ruled that, while governments have the right to reduce subsidies, they must preserve parity between state and recognised private schools. Attendance at *Ersatzschulen* counts as compulsory school attendance and most schools are approved for the award of state qualifications, though they have considerable latitude in matters of curriculum.

Article 7.5 limits state recognition of primary schools to those which are of special pedagogical interest and rules out private nursery and pre-primary schools.

A second group of schools, called *Ergänzungsschulen* or 'supplementary schools', which have no counterpart in the state system, are not legally eligible for state support though some Länder do in fact give grants. These schools are mainly vocational, catering for sport, dance, languages, technical and computer studies and the like. They do not require a licence but must register their existence with the authorities. They cannot award state qualifications but are free of other controls, being required only to conform with public regulations such as rules for fire precautions.

2. Statistics

The independent sector in the old Federal Republic is relatively small overall. According to official figures for 1989 6.5% of the total school population attending regular primary and secondary schools and 6.9% of those in vocational schools were in the private sector. At secondary level private schools accounted for something over 12.9% overall. Percentages at different types of schools in 1989 (with those for 1980/81 in brackets for comparison) were as follows:

Grund und Hauptschulen (primary/sec. modern)	1.2 (2.1)
Realschulen	8.3 (6.1)
Gymnasien	12.1 (9.5)
Gesamtschulen (comprehensive + Steiner)	23.8 (14.6)
Berufsfachschulen (vocational and technical)	14.8* (6.4)
Sonderschulen (special schools)	16.7 (11.8)

*Percentages are much higher in certain types of vocational and technical school—for example, 11.9% in full-time vocational schools in 1987, as opposed to 2.3% in part-time ones and 39.8% in specialised technical colleges. In the comprehensive figure Steiner schools account for the greater part.

Figures for 1989 are taken from *Bundesminister für Bildung und Wissenschaft: Grund- und Strukturdaten 1990/91*.

It is not possible to give figures for *Ergänzungsschulen* but the *Bundesverband deutscher Privatschulen* to which many of them belong claims some 2,000.

There are up to 60,000 places for boarding pupils, 46,000 of which are in Catholic Schools. In 1986/7 Catholic Schools, with 279,262 pupils in 848 schools, accounted for 52.8% of a total independent school population of 524,821.

Regional variations

The proportion of private pupils varies considerably from region to region. By way of example, while private *Gymnasien* educated 12.1% of the total enrolment of the FDR in 1989, they rated only 2% in Schleswig-Holstein and at the top of the scale 17.6% in Saarland.

According to the *Handbuch freier Schulen* published in 1988 by the umbrella organisation *Arbeitsgemeinschaft freier Schulen* there were in 1987 roughly 550,000 pupils in the different main groupings of recognised independent schools, details of which will be found in Appendix A. They were distributed as follows:

Catholic day and boarding schools belonging to the *Arbeitskreis Katholischer Schulen in freier Trägerschaft*.	390,000 in 1,134 schools
Protestant day and boarding schools belonging to the *Arbeitsgemeinschaft Evangelischer Schulbünde*:	60,000 in 360 schools
Steiner schools belonging to the *Bund der freier Waldorfschulen*	37,000 in 80 schools
Special schools:	3,000 in 46 schools
Country boarding schools *(Landerziehungsheime)*	4,000 in 17 schools
Bundesverband deutscher Privatschulen e.V. (largely lay)	55,200 in 250 schools

During the 80s some 60 or more so-called 'alternative' schools were established, many of which are without legal standing. They belong to the *Bundesverband der freien Alternativschulen in der BRD* and have links with 'free' schools in other European countries. The VDP, unlike the other organisations, includes in its membership not only *Ersatzschulen* and *Ergänzungsschulen* but also evening schools and adult education institutions and has a total membership of more than 1,000 about half of which are profit-making.

With the unification of Germany the count of Steiner schools including those in the former DDR is now 135.

3. **Finance—subsidies and fees**

All independent schools which are non-profit-making have tax advantages. Those *Ersatzschulen* which qualify for subsidy normally receive up to two-thirds of the total estimated cost per pupil in a state school except that in some *Länder* private *Grundschulen* and *Hauptschulen* receive the full cost.

Methods of subsidy and financial control vary from Land to Land and there are several patterns for the assessment of subsidies. In Baden-Württemberg, Bavaria, Bremen, Hamburg, Hessen, Lower Saxony and Schleswig-Holstein grant is calculated from the number of pupils multiplied by the cost of staffing per pupil in an equivalent state school regardless of actual expenditure and there is a minimum of control. In Berlin, North Rhine-Westphalia, Rheinland Palatinate and Saarland the Minister exercises more detailed supervision of a school's expenses in order to match subsidy to real need and grants are fixed as a percentage of the previous year's expenses in a corresponding state school—a system which involves much time spent in administration and which can result in disputes between the authorities and the schools. There are minor variations within these two patterns and some regions combine a basic grant with investigation of need. Confessional schools normally receive further subsidy from church sources and make very small or no charges except for boarding, which may cost from DM600 to DM1,200 per month. Typical fees for a private *gymnasium* on the traditional 'morning only' pattern range from DM150 to DM450 per month.

Ergänzungsschulen such as language or secretarial schools do not receive state subsidy (except in Baden-Württemberg and Hessen) and charge fees accordingly, which may range from DM300 to DM600. About 50% of them are non-profit-making and get tax relief. The distinction between the two types of schools is not always clear, since what is classified as an *Ergänzungsschule* in one Land may well rank as an *Ersatzschule* in another where the state system develops a similar institution—e.g. for training in hotel work.

The Länder provide free accident insurance for pupils in *Ersatzschulen* and until 1985, when the concession was withdrawn, parents in real need could apply for help with fees under the Federal Law for the Furtherance of Education.

Some Länder also provide pensions for teachers, help with the cost of building and teaching materials or post state teachers, who are civil servants, to independent schools for temporary duty.

Parents are also eligible for certain allowances against tax, viz:

DM1,800 a year for a child under 18 who is a boarder or living away from home.
DM2,000 a year for a child over 18 undergoing training as a home student.
DM2,000 a year for a child over 18 undergoing training away from home.

These allowances are not affected by the scale of fees charged. It should be remembered that pupils may well stay at *gymnasium* until age 20.

In addition since 1980 there has been an allowance of DM600 per child under 18 per parent (i.e. DM1,200 per married couple assessed together) against expenses incurred in supervising and caring for children undergoing education, including sport and special education.

4. The advantages and disadvantages of state support

Despite internal differences in the method and extent of subsidy in the Länder, the limitations they impose on the independent schools are serious when taken together with the implicit limitation on the size of fees set by the anti-discrimination clause in Article 7 of the *Grundgesetz*. It is clear that most schools find it hard to fund costs greater than those of equivalent state schools and are therefore not in general better equipped or served and depend for their success on the achievement of a sense of community which involves staff, pupils and parents in support of an agreed pattern of education. The price paid for subsidy is mainly that of overall control of the curriculum by government syllabuses and state examinations, though exceptions are increasingly made for experimental schools like the Rudolf Steiner (Waldorf) schools, which are allowed their own curricula, a special examination and a more liberal subsidy. Because their funds are limited and they are mostly unwilling to put obstacles in the way of poorer families by charging fees, Catholic and Protestant Church schools tend to go along with the authorities more readily than other independent schools, differ little from state schools in structure, curriculum and method and do little to contribute to educational innovation and reform. Their appeal is in their vigorous defence of the principles of Christian education and academic standards.

Some supporters of the independent schools are critical of the grant system because of this tendency to support uniformity rather than stimulate variety and experiment, but there is general agreement that without it independent schools would be limited only to the children of the rich and be very small in number. It is, however, less confining than, for example, the voluntary-aided system in England and Wales, under which the majority of confessional schools are more directly subject to Local Education Authority control and do not form part of the independent sector. The aim of the Constitution, however, is clearly to foster a pluralistic educational system under which independent schools enrich the state system by filling lacunae in state provision and by providing competition, variety and a measure of compensation for limitation of parental choice by reason of lack of means. In educational terms, Germany retains what may be called a 'command economy' in education, within which the independent sector affords only a minor degree of liquidity. So far attempts to decentralise the overruling authority of the State in education and to devolve it to local and school authorities have failed to reach the statute book, though they have much support

amongst academics and liberal politicians. It is perhaps ironical that *Freiheit des Studiums*, which has long been the watchword of the German Universities, is an occasional luxury rather than an intrinsic principle of education at primary and secondary level.

5. The status and future of the independent sector

Despite or perhaps because of the close resemblance of the greater part of the independent sector to the patterns of state education and despite the increase in provision and variety in the public system, especially in the sphere of vocational training, the statistics in Section 3 point to continued if modest growth in the sector as a whole, which was marked in the sixties and early seventies and has continued in the eighties. The number of pupils both in general academic and in vocational schools has doubled since 1960, despite some falling away in the eighties because of a falling birthrate. Though experiment in the majority of independent schools has done little more than mirror the cautious experiments in the state system in comprehensive education, the rapid growth in the number of Steiner schools is evidence of the increasing appeal to parents of a child-centred pedagogy which stresses the importance of developing social and artistic interests alongside academic training, as is the upsurge of the more way-out 'alternative schools' in the eighties. The strength of the sector as a whole lies firstly in the quality of an education which depends for its success on the ability of governors, teachers, pupils and parents to unite in supporting a community of interest based on principles largely accepted by all the parties concerned, whether they are inspired by a shared faith or by a shared philosophy of education; and secondly in the limited but real variety of choice which by reason of subsidy from the State it offers to parents who can afford a modest fee.

Independent schools and their associations are warmly supported by the Conservative Democrats of the CDU and less warmly by the SPD and left wing groups, a difference which can be reflected in the attitudes of Länder governments, but all the main parties support freedom of choice and variety and a degree of financial aid and are usually represented at meetings of the independent school organisations. Education in an independent school is not felt to confer special status or social privilege except for a very few expensive boarding schools which recruit from the top levels of society and lay stress on leadership and community training. Nevertheless, many senior politicians choose them for their children in the belief that teachers and pupils are better motivated and conditions more conducive to full development and understanding. As elsewhere in Europe, in North America and in the Antipodes, the confessional schools in general, which four-fifths of all independent school pupils attend, and the Catholic schools in particular, whose numbers have increased in the eighties while those in Protestant schools have sharply declined, recruit widely from all social classes and exist in down-town as well as in more affluent areas. There is concern in the independent school associations that governments faced by increasing economic stringency are tempted to pare grants at a time when costs are rising even more rapidly than in the past: and they are aware of the need to promote their cause at home and to play their part in the development of the wider European community as a whole and more particularly in the establishment of a truly independent sector in the former DDR. The Arbeitsgemeinschaft has already published proposals for a reform of the relevant sections of the *Grundgesetz* to establish a common pattern of legislation for independent education in the new Germany and is actively involved with regional authorities and newly-founded independent schools in the former Eastern Länder.

FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

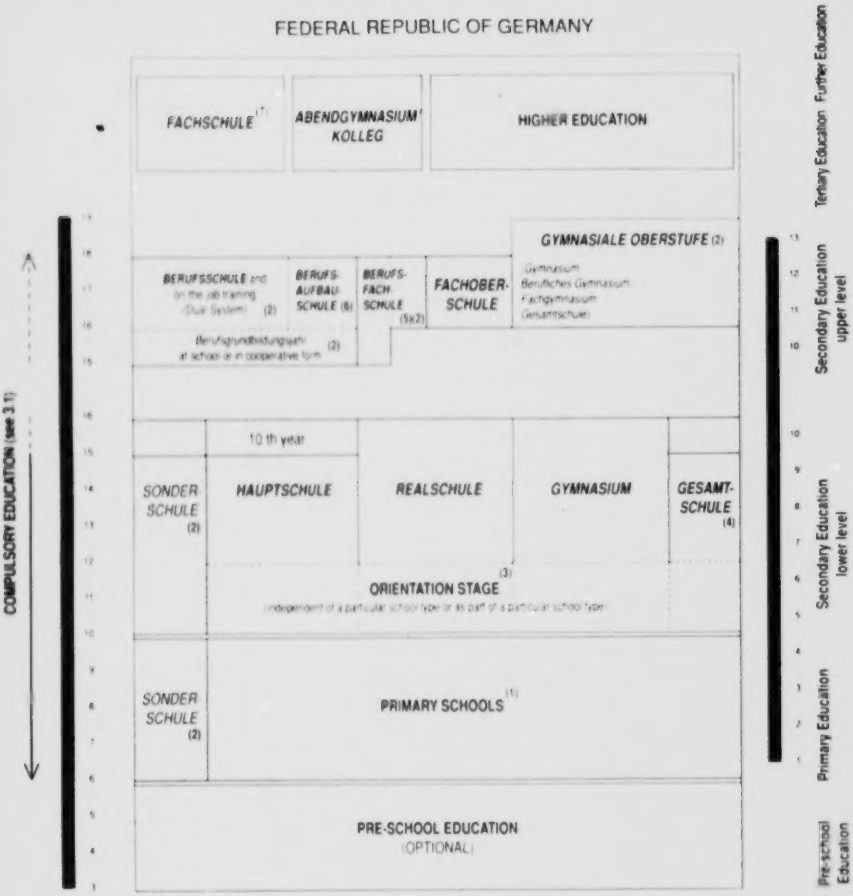


Diagram of the basic structure of the education system as of September 1990. Within this common framework, special features exist in the individual *Länder* of the Federal Republic. The situation in the 5 *Länder* on the territory of the former German Democratic Republic that joined the Federal Republic on 3 October 1990 is not taken into account here due to the political developments and the ongoing reforms in education.

1) In some *Länder*, special types of transition from pre-school education to primary school exist (pre-school classes, school kindergarten). In Berlin the primary school comprises 6 years, there is no separate orientation stage.

2) Different forms of special education - general and vocational - depending on the disability in question.

3) The orientation stage exists in all *Länder* with the exception of Bavaria where it is tested in several pilot experiments and Berlin where years 5 and 6 are part of the primary school.

4) In some *Länder*, the comprehensive school is a regular type of school alongside *Hauptschule*, *Realschule* and *Gymnasium*; in the other *Länder* it is an optional or experimental type of school.

5) Full-time vocational schools differing with regard to entrance requirements, duration of courses and leaving certificates.

division in the level/type of education

alternative beginning or end of level/type of education

Greece

The national background

The Greek educational system and the role of independent schools within it reflect the inherent antinomies of Greek society. From classical times Greeks have been remarkable for two fascinatingly paradoxical characteristics—an intense, excitable and ruthless individualism and a deep sense of loyalty to party, region and the country which is the birthplace of Western Culture. Decentralisation of power is rare and education, like other aspects of life, is bureaucratically controlled from the centre and in comparison with other EEC countries remains, despite some beginnings of reform in recent years, highly traditional, examination-ridden and somewhat ill-adapted to the needs of the modern world and to the development of individual initiative and ability. To survive in these conditions intelligent Greeks, while nominally accepting the law, connive together to by-pass regulations in every sphere of life, yet are too individualistic to combine effectively and act in concert in support of the causes they prize lest their own personal profit and independence be endangered.

Article 16 of the Greek Constitution puts the responsibility for education and its control firmly on the State and requires that in state institutions it shall be free of charge. There is no specific reference to variety and freedom of parental choice.

Education in both state and independent schools is rigidly controlled by Acts of Parliament which regulate the organisation of educational institutions, the content of teaching, timetables, and national examinations. They are administered and supervised by the national Ministry of Education and Religious Faiths through directorates for primary, secondary general and secondary vocational education in each prefecture (nome) and sub-offices in populous areas. The Ministry contains a Directorate for Private Education. Advisers, formerly inspectors, assess teacher performance and teaching programmes. Both public and independent schools are subject to their control and inspection. By tradition education at all levels has emphasised the historical values of Greek and Hellenistic culture and has given special weight to the study of classical and modern Greek, history, philosophy and logic, and mathematics, with, until recently, smaller emphasis on the pure and applied sciences and vocational training. Compulsory schooling is for 9 years from 5½. Pre-primary education from 3½ to 5½ is optional and free in state schools. Primary education, also free in state schools, is from 5½ to 11½ and is followed by three years at lower secondary level in a *gymnasio*.

The *gymnasio* curriculum includes some vocational training and an introduction to science; and the school awards a leaving certificate at the end of the course which automatically admits to one of the four kinds of upper secondary school *(lykeio)*—general, classical (few in number), technical/vocational and comprehensive—or to new types of technical and vocational schools. There are evening schools at both secondary levels and a small number of special sports and music *lykeia*.

All schools, both public and independent, must follow the common curriculum as laid down by the Ministry and use the single text authorised for each subject. Each school must have a Parents' Association, a School Council consisting of the teaching staff and members of the Board of the Parents' Association and a School Committee composed of representatives of the community, the Parents' Association and the head and in secondary schools a representative of the pupils.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. The sector includes a variety of types of school at nursery, primary and secondary level and a vast number of specialist 'crammers' called generally *frontisteria*. With the exceptions noted below in section 3 they are privately owned and run as commercial enterprises. It is only recently that an attempt has been made to found an association for independent schools, so intense is the mutual distrust arising from competition, and natural individualism. Tertiary education at university level, which has been radically reorganised in the last decade, is entirely in the public domain but a variety of private institutions provide instruction and training and award diplomas which have no state recognition.

2. **Legal and ministerial controls**

Schools may only be founded with the approval of the appropriate regional board endorsed by the Minister. If non-profit-making the Minister may give them subventions from his general budget. In addition to the requirements of a common curriculum and system of government he controls staffing levels, class sizes, transfer from state schools and the granting of certificates. Teachers' salaries must be at least the same as in the state system. Independent gymnasia award certificates which rank with those of state schools without special supervision but pupils in independent lykeia must be examined in each of their three years under the supervision of a mixed committee of independent and state teachers if they are to receive leaving certificates.

3. **Statistics**

a) ***Nursery and primary schools***

According to government figures for 1989/90 6,969 children attended 145 independent nursery 'units' compared with 16,677 in 422 units ten years earlier. They represented 4.93% of the total at this stage compared with 11% in 1978.

At primary level there were 57,508 in 398 independent units or 7.29% of the total in this stage, again a sharp decline.

b) ***Secondary—gymnasia and lykeia***

There was an even sharper decline over the same period in the number of independent gymnasia and their pupils from 21,734 in 258 units to 15,795 in 73 units or 3.65% of all pupils at this level; and in general or academic lykeia from 26,759 in 241 units to 11,571 in 58 units or 4.82%.

There are no independent comprehensive lykeia, which, like technical lykeia, were introduced in 1984. In 1989/90 there were 8 independent technical lykeia with 4,688 students against 82,646 in 247 state equivalents.

Ecclesiastical gymnasia and lykeia have specially designed courses for those who wish to study theology as intending priests in the Orthodox Church and are for boys only. They have no independent equivalents.

c) ***Vocational secondary schools (TES)***

In 1989/90 7,384 students (18.37%) were in 28 independent two-year vocational schools and 32,807 in state schools.

d) ***Frontisteria, etc.***

No statistics are available for these commercial enterprises. They are often expensive and very inefficient coaching establishments which specialise in coaching to defeat examinations for which success depends on rote-learning and the setting out of answers. Many able pupils in good state and independent schools are sent to frontisteria in

the evening by parents anxious to ensure the highest point score for university entry, especially if they are applying for places in medicine. The result is intolerable stress and the loss of most extra-curricular activities in school.

National pupil-teacher ratios were reported in 1987/8 as 19.3:1 in nursery schools, 22.2:1 in primary schools and 17.1:1 in gymnasia. All teachers at secondary level must be university graduates. Teachers in independent schools have their own union but aspire to assimilation to the civil service status of state teachers and so to secure comparable pension rights, a change which would bring extra pressure on their schools and increase the risk of interference.

4. The main types of independent school

There are three different types of independent school differing in purpose and legal status. These are:-

a) International schools with foreign curricula, six of which are English-language schools with British or American programmes. All but one are incorporated in the US; Campion School, a British foundation, has pupils from 3½ to 18. These schools must be licensed by the Greek government under a law of 1931 and are not open to Greek pupils unless they have been educated abroad.

Other international schools with foreign curricula have bilateral agreements and are controlled and funded by their home governments.

b) 15 foreign schools established under the same law provide an education based on the Greek pattern and are open to Greeks without restriction. Four are American foundations with an American principal and a Greek deputy or co-director. The most famous and unusual of these is Athens College, many of whose pupils come from the most influential families in Greek life and industry. It began in the eighties to admit girls and has a scholarship programme which aims to bring in children from widely different social backgrounds at age 4½. These awards are not funded by fees and are not competitive or selective, being awarded by lottery. The prestige of the college ensures a measure of self-selection by parents with appropriate life-styles or ambitions. Its resources make it possible to offer very good teaching, equipment and facilities for extra-curricular activities including music and drama; but the staff admit that the pressures of the Greek system of examinations increasingly deters pupils from taking advantage of them as they go further up the school. Fees in 1991 ranged from Dr700,000 to 850,000. This and the previous group together educate just under 10,000 pupils.

c) The bulk of Greek independent schools is privately owned and follows the Greek system under strict Ministry control. A few have GCSE and A level programmes alongside the Greek one. One of these, a very well-known school, has 2,300 pupils from 3-18 in a generally well-built and well-planned building, though provision for science here as in schools generally is short by British standards. Entry is unselective except by cost which at present ranges from Dr600,000 at primary level to Dr800,000 in the lykeio. Fees in independent schools are strictly controlled by government and this, combined with the rigidity of the official syllabus and the restriction to official texts, makes it difficult to extend the scope and quality of instruction despite judicious adaptation of regulations whenever possible. Below this level, apart from half-a-dozen schools of moderate quality, most schools exist in cramped premises and with poor resources, though conditions in the state sector are often worse, involving shared premises and staggered hours.

d) Independent vocational lykeia and vocational schools, which were at one time the main providers of this pattern of education, are now much reduced in importance and are beginning to be less well equipped than their state equivalents. Students in these institutions are eligible for grants from public funds and bursaries.

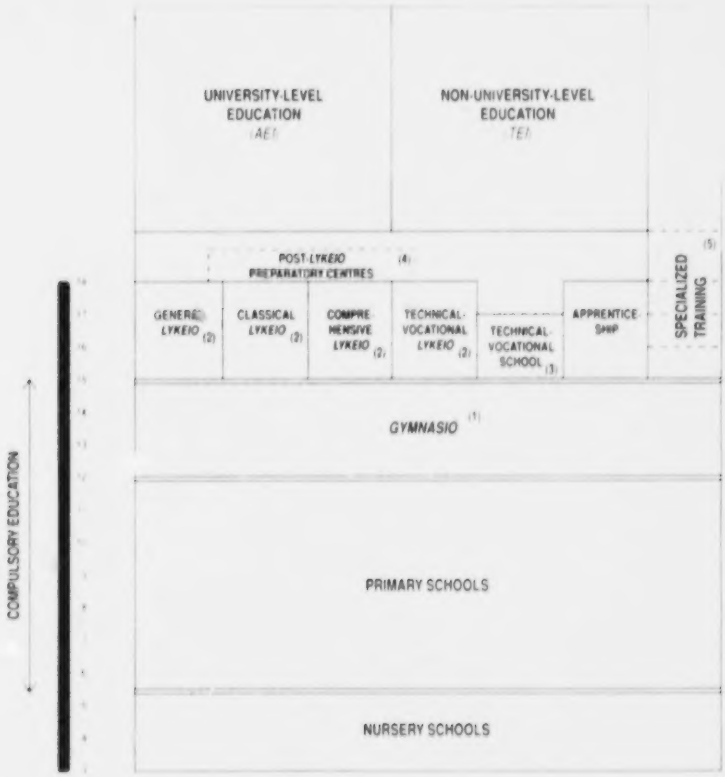
5. The status, role and future of the independent sector

Independent education in Greece reflects the paradoxes already noted in Greek society. So individual and commercially competitive that they are virtually unable to come together for mutual protection and the furtherance of their educational ideals, those which follow the national patterns can do little to offset the constraints of a bureaucratic and highly centralised system of financial and educational controls. They are in fact hamstrung by ministerially-imposed curricula, text books and examinations and even the four non-profit-making schools like Athens College, despite their greater resources and better staffs, are unable to offer the variety of choice and method which is possible elsewhere. It is perhaps significant that a 1986 report on Education Structures in EEC Member States by the Greek unit of Eurydice contains the following passage:

'The private element is, however, of limited importance in to-day's Greek education since quite a number of institutions which were run by private bodies (such as foundations) have been taken over by the State in recent years'. While this refers in the main to the recent restructuring of tertiary education, it reflects a general attitude which sees government as the dominant partner in determining both policy and practice. The recent PASOK government under Mr. Papandreou was philosophically opposed to privilege, like the French and Spanish socialist parties, and announced its intention to abolish not only independent schools including Athens College but also selection in the state system. The major attack did not materialise as the schools feared but there was a continued degree of harassment and though many of their alumni are influential they have no pressure group similar to that of the *Enseignement Catholique* in France with its parliamentary and parent associations to fight their corner.

The Greek independent schools proper, all profit-making and mostly expensive, vary greatly in standard and, with the expansion of the state system in the eighties, are attracting fewer pupils than in the past. Nevertheless, the often overcrowded and poorly equipped premises of state schools and the rigidity of their methods continue to make the independent sector attractive, especially to the middle and professional classes. It is perhaps significant of the inflexibility of the Greek system that there are no Steiner schools or other educational variants to widen parental choice and variety of educational offering. The existing schools welcome their country's involvement in the European Community to which they look for encouragement in the development of a wider spectrum of educational provision and a more liberal government attitude to reform. Their first task is to stand more firmly together for their beliefs and for the principles they proclaim.

GREECE



1. The *Gymnasio* provides general education at lower secondary level with the leaving certificate providing access to the *Lykeio*. Evening *Gymnasia* provide equivalent education for employed persons, 14 years of age or over.
2. The *Lykeio* provides education at upper secondary level with the leaving certificate providing access to the general university entrance examinations. General *Lykeia* provide general secondary education. Classical *Lykeia* promote classical studies. Comprehensive *Lykeia* aim to link general and technical-vocational education. Technical-Vocational *Lykeia* combine general education with vocational training. Evening *Lykeia* provide equivalent education, lasting 4 years, for employed persons.
3. The Technical-Vocational School (*TES*) provides up to 2 years of technical-vocational education at upper secondary level leading to employment. Evening *TES* provide courses of up to 3 years for employed persons.
4. Post-*Lykeio* Preparatory Centres prepare *Lykeio* leavers, who have not already been successful in the general university entrance examinations, to take them.
5. Specialized training of various lengths, include in particular the courses run by OAED (Employment and Manpower Organization).

division of the three type of education

alternative beginning or end of one type of education

Ireland (Eire)

The national background

Education in the Republic of Ireland is difficult to assess in terms of the usual distinction between public and independent schools. Its development since the transfer of power to the Republic has been largely controlled by the complex interrelationship of the Catholic Church and the State.

In one sense most schools at primary and secondary level are independent in that they are managed and controlled by independent or partly independent bodies while receiving government funds to cover all or part of their running and capital costs. In another there is a valid distinction between:

(a) the provision of free primary education in what are called 'national' schools, funded by government but organised and maintained under denominational control by church-dominated boards;

(b) a secondary system of academic, private and almost exclusively denominational schools, some of which are virtually non-fee-paying and are fully subsidised by government while others charge considerable fees and receive a lower level of subsidy;

(c) also at secondary level, vocational schools, a limited number of comprehensive and a growing number of community schools which are virtually free, maintained schools under local authority control, although the churches are represented on their managing boards and religion is part of the curriculum.

There is the further complication that denominational schools are open within limits to children of different beliefs, with a conscience clause allowing their withdrawal from religious instruction. In principle, then, all primary and secondary schools except those listed under (c) are independent aided denominational rather than maintained state schools in the English sense. This highly individual system is the result of a long development whose origins are in past conflicts between Church and State and which reflects the still dominant though increasingly questioned influence of the Catholic hierarchy on public life and explains why free secondary education was not established as a principle until 1967.

There is no national system of pre-school education. Nursery schools exist only in the independent sector and are not subsidised. They catered for 20,774 infants in 87/8. However, national (primary) schools may, if they wish, admit children at four years of age to a preparatory class.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. **Constitutional safeguards of choice and independence**

The aims and principles which govern education in Ireland are clearly laid down in Articles 42, 44.2.4, and 44.2.6, of the Constitution of Ireland, 1937, as revised in 1973. The relevant clauses are:

Article 42

1. The State acknowledges that the primary and natural educator of the child is the family and guarantees to respect the inalienable right and duty of parents to provide, according to their means, for the religious and moral, intellectual, physical and social education of their children.

2. Parents shall be free to provide this education in their homes or in private schools, or in schools recognised or established by the State.

3.1. The State shall not oblige parents, in violation of their conscience and lawful preference to send their children to schools established by the State, or to any particular type of school designated by the State.

4. The State shall provide for free primary education and shall endeavour to supplement and give reasonable aid to private and corporate educational initiative, and when the public good requires it, provide other educational facilities or institutions with due regard, however, to the rights of parents, especially in the matter of religious and moral formation.

Article 44

2.4. Legislation providing State aid for schools shall not discriminate between schools under the management of different religious denominations, nor be such as to affect prejudicially the right of any child to attend a school receiving public money without attending religious instruction at that school.

The role of the State is thus clearly limited to protecting and promoting parental rights while ensuring that a basic minimum standard is achieved. However, the State, through the Department of Education, which runs the examination system and is directly involved with community and comprehensive schools, is becoming steadily more powerful and exercises a real measure of control through what is in fact a highly centralised administrative system. Education is compulsory from 6 to 15.

2. Primary education

(a) *'National' Schools*

Of all pupils of primary school age in 1989 560,304 children (98.5% of the age group) attended 3,247 national schools. The management boards of these schools contain a majority of nominees of the religious patron—usually the bishop—together with parental and teacher representatives. Unlike voluntary-aided church schools in the U.K. they are free from local-authority control and more self-contained. The State pays 85% of capital costs and about 80% of running costs and the balance comes from the local community. Figures for the early 80s recorded 3,323 schools with Catholic status of which 573 were run by religious orders, 24 schools which were Presbyterian or Methodist, 2 under joint patronage and 202 Church of Ireland. Clearly there has been some fall-back to correspond with a declining birthrate, but the pattern remains much the same. Two thirds of all schools are coeducational. Neither fees nor parental levies are permitted.

(b) *Independent primary schools*

Ministry statistics record 63 independent primary schools in 1989 as opposed to 110 in 1979. They do not receive state aid and are not subject to inspection. Many are run by religious orders and they are often junior sections of aided secondary schools. Such junior schools are sought after as likely to guarantee entry to the selective secondary school to which they belong. Salary scales tend to be lower than in aided schools and less attention is paid to the Irish language. The list includes three preparatory schools in membership of the Incorporated Association of Preparatory Schools in the UK, Montessori and Froebel schools, and a single Steiner school.

3. Secondary education

Secondary schools are under private management but to qualify for state grants their curriculum must be approved by the Department of Education. Of approximately 362,000 pupils in the 812 secondary ('grammar'), vocational, comprehensive and community schools in the Republic listed in 1988/9 in the Department of Education's

Statistical Report 213,640 (63%) attended 496 independent 'grammar' schools, 108,113 the 251 vocational schools whose curriculum normally includes general education, 31,651 the 47 community schools and 8,837 the 16 comprehensive schools.

'Grammar' schools receive whole or partial subsidies from government. With the exception of the 23 Protestant schools and a single Jewish school, all the remaining 472 are under Catholic control. The overwhelming majority are owned and run by Catholic religious orders, upwards of thirty are Catholic Diocesan Colleges and almost another thirty are controlled by lay Catholics. 156 (31%) are coeducational and 340 single sex. 94 schools, 73 Catholic and 21 Protestant, have boarding sides responsible for 10,753 pupils, making 5% of the total roll, a considerable decrease compared with ten years ago. The high proportion of Protestant schools taking boarders reflects the scattered distribution of Protestants in rural areas. Most schools have between 200 and 500 pupils.

More than 90% of these schools have been nominally free since 1967, though the subsidy they receive does not cover costs and they tend to resort to levies or voluntary subscriptions to make up the deficiency. This is mainly because the number of religious and therefore unsalaried teachers has continued to decline rapidly in Ireland as in other mainly Catholic European countries and partly because the State took advantage of the existing low fees in setting grants when free education was introduced in 1967.

There are, in addition, 39 Catholic and 21 Protestant schools which charge fees. These schools include the most sought-after academic institutions like the Jesuit Belvedere College in Dublin where James Joyce was educated, St. Columba's College, Kings' Hospital, St. Andrew's College, Blackrock, De la Salle College, Wesley College, the Presentation Brothers' College in Cork, Mount Sackville Convent in Dublin and Rathdown College for Girls. Fees per annum for secondary day pupils ranged in 1990/1 from Ir£600 to Ir£1,700 and for boarders from Ir£3,000 to Ir£5,600.

Both 'free' and fee-paying schools receive a capitation grant of at present Ir£150 per pupil. 'Free' schools receive a supplementary grant. All but Ir£400 of teachers' salaries is paid by the State and there are grants for 88% of the cost of building, furniture, etc. The cost of the site is the school's responsibility and grant may not be used for the payment of loan charges. No grant is given for boarding.

Non-Catholic secondary schools receive a special block grant via an inter-church Secondary Education Committee, grants being related to parental means as under the former direct grant system in England, Wales and Scotland so as to ensure admission regardless of parental income. Fee-paying schools can and often do provide for more generous staffing out of fees—and are envied by those which cannot do so.

Like all secondary schools they are subject to the *Rules and Programme of Secondary Schools* laid down by the Department of Education but are not required to account to the Department and are little troubled by the inspectorate except when they invite them in to approve applications for building grants. All the same their curriculum is dominated by the state examinations at 15+ and 17+. Though they offer a wide choice of subjects, the most favoured combination is three languages (Irish, French and English), mathematics, history, geography and a science subject. Few take physical sciences, applied sciences, technical subjects and higher mathematics.

Being independent institutions, they are free to select or reject applicants for admission as they choose. Some select pupils by examination, others on primary school record and/or interview, or from a defined catchment area. Junior school pupils are normally admitted to their senior school and brothers and sisters usually have priority. Denominational schools give preference to co-religionists but are not exclusive. Some

of the more expensive schools, especially the Protestant ones, are felt to be socially selective but this may often, if not always, be from the parental rather than the school side.

4. Coordination and control

There is a complicated and extensive pattern of coordinating agencies, particularly at secondary level, to represent the interests of the Catholic and Protestant Churches, the Catholic schools run by the Orders, the lay schools, managers and teachers of various kinds. Most important of these is the Secondary Schools' Joint Managerial Body which represents both Catholic and Protestant schools in negotiations on grants and with teachers' unions. The Irish Schoolmasters' Association represents Protestant boys' and girls' schools.

5. The status and future of the independent sector

Secondary education in Ireland is in process of development from a private, church-dominated and selective system largely financed and indirectly controlled by government into a mixed system in which schools formerly restricted to vocational training and community-based comprehensives co-exist with independent, grant-aided grammar schools. The Constitution is unique in the extent of responsibility given to parents for the education of their children and makes them the unequivocal arbiters of choice between education at home, in independent and in state schools. There is no radical political opposition or appetite for socially-based educational reform at central party level to hinder continuance of this system and it is mainly in the new urban developments that the small number of community-based schools finds favour in a society whose aspirations are for the most part middle-class and bourgeois. Even here their numbers have increased little in the past decade. The most significant change during this period has been a growing demand for multi-denominational primary education which has resulted in the establishment of a small number of these schools, mainly in the large cities – 5 in Dublin and 2 or 3 others in the country generally.

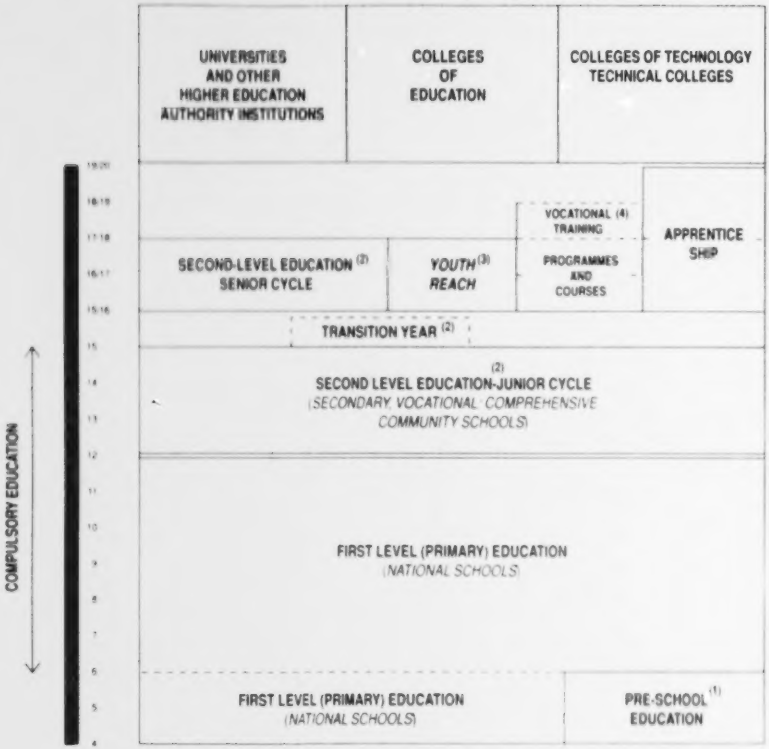
Miss Christina Murphy, the Educational Correspondent of the Irish Times, in her book *School Report* (Ward River Press, 1980) was sceptical of the virtues of independent fee-paying schools but she and other critics admit that they do not speak for any kind of powerful lobby. The churches are still predominant in education both fee-paying and free and it must be remembered in connection with the growing interest in multi-denominational schools mentioned in the previous paragraph that denominational schools are by no means exclusive on religious grounds. The distinction between fee paying and free schools is one of status, both social and educational, though for Protestants the only option, unless they use one of the few multi-denominational schools, is to pay fees or to enrol their children at a free Catholic school or one of the rare local comprehensives.

In the primary sector the whole national system of aided, free Church schools is dominated by the parish priest and the diocese, though the Department of Education is strengthening its control over syllabuses. The Catholic and Protestant churches have a monopoly of primary teacher training.

It seems unlikely, therefore, that the present balance of influence in education will be changed radically in the foreseeable future. Nevertheless the influence of the Department of Education over the aided schools through its powers of regulation, its control of examinations and its role as paymaster is by no means negligible and its more direct involvement in comprehensives and community schools increases its impact, so that it does more than ensure the maintenance of a minimum standard.

to which the Constitution limits its remit. The system as it has developed makes an interesting contrast with countries such as Belgium, Holland, France and Spain where conflict between Church and State for the control of education has for the most part resulted in different compromises, a less diversified pattern of schools, less parental choice and a greater degree of state control. The independent schools in the Irish secondary sector, and especially the fee-paying ones, enjoy a degree of autonomy almost equivalent to full independence. They are privately owned and managed and while receiving full or partial subsidy do not have to submit estimates or account for expenditure on running costs to government. They also benefit from considerable aid for capital costs and the amortisation of loans. Their chief limitation, as in the UK, is the control exercised by the examination system and public expectations of performance and by the increasing unionisation of teaching staffs. If the demand for multi-denominational or community schools were to show a marked nation-wide increase and to draw a positive response from the Department of Education there might well be a small but steady decline in the size of the independent sector and possibly some decrease in Church influence in education. A major shift seems very unlikely unless the climate of society in Ireland is radically changed.

IRELAND



1. There is no national system of pre-school education in Ireland. However primary (*National*) schools may accept pupils on or after their 4th birthday. Existing pre-school services are mainly private and not part of the formal education system. The average age for starting school is five years.

2. Second-level schools cover lower and upper secondary education - *Junior* and *Senior Cycles*. The four main types - *Secondary, Vocational, Comprehensive and Community* - all now offer a comprehensive curriculum combining academic and vocational subjects. The Transition Year, a one-year interdisciplinary programme, either at the end of full-time schooling or in preparation for the *Senior Cycle*, is offered in a limited number of schools. The *Junior Cycle* leads to the new *Junior Certificate* providing access to the *Senior Cycle*.

   At Senior Cycle the main courses are the 2-year Leaving Certificate leading to higher education or employment, and the Vocational Preparation and Training Programmes which prepare for working life.

3. Youthreach is an education and training programme available to young people who have left school with no formal qualification. It lasts 2 years (A Foundation year and a Progression year).

   It is run jointly by the education authorities (Vocational Education Committees - VEC) and the Vocational Training and Employment Authority (FÁS).

4. Training courses of various lengths are provided by FÁS for unemployed young people: Skills Registration, Community Youth Training, Local Training Initiatives.

- division of the main type of education
- alternative beginning or end of each type of education

Italy

The national background

After the abolition of the monarchy in 1946 the new constitutional charter of January 1948 laid down the basic principles which, together with a complex of previous legislation, control both public and private education in Italy. The Italian approach is highly legalistic and formal in all kinds of administration. The Constitution itself was the result of a compromise between Right and Left and, like the 1929 Concordat between Church and State, was meant to give parity to both sides; but, also like it, has worked more in favour of the former and the *status quo* under successive and often insecure Christian Democratic governments. The Concordat was re-negotiated by the Craxi government in 1986 and resulted, amongst other things, in the relegation of religious studies from compulsory to optional status in the curriculum of schools.

Although the need for reform throughout the educational system is now accepted by all parties, it has until recently been unbelievably slow to adapt to modern needs and trends, especially at secondary level; but major reforms are now in progress on lines familiar in the rest of Europe—reform of the curriculum and the introduction of team teaching in the primary school *(scuola elementare)*, the raising of the school leaving age to 16, though this has still not been implemented, and from 1992 a new senior leaving examination *(maturità)*.

The Ministry of Public Instruction controls all formal nursery, primary, secondary and non-university tertiary institutions except for some vocational training under the Ministry of Labour. Regional, provincial and district authorities are government agencies, with the Minister represented at provincial level by local education offices *(Provveditorati agli studi)*, though there are some signs of increased local autonomy.

In financial terms nearly 74% of educational spending comes from central funds, 8% from regional and provincial sources and 18% from the communes. Pre-primary education from 3-6 is optional but 90.5% in this age group now attend state or independent schools. It is free in state schools, as are both stages of compulsory education to 14, but modest fees may be charged at higher secondary level.

Primary schools cover ages 6-11 and are followed by a lower secondary course *(scuola media)* from 12-14+. At upper secondary level *(scuola secondaria superiore)* from 15-19 there are four types of academic *licei*, *licei classici* for the humanities, *licei scientifici*, *licei linguistici and licei artistici* for the arts, three types of technical institute with a common two year course followed by a wide choice of technical training, a wide range of vocational courses at *istituti professionali*, and institutes for primary teacher training. In addition there are innumerable non-governmental institutions for vocational training run either by the regions or by private enterprise. According to data for 1990 provided by the annual report of the research institution CENSIS *licei* educate about 28% of all pupils at higher secondary level.

The Ministry's centralised control extends to syllabuses and examinations. All teachers and administrators in state schools are civil servants and three-quarters of all teachers are women.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. The constitutional and legal position of the independent sector

Many of the regulations governing independent schools date from the Fascist period despite strong advice from the Constitutional Court in 1958 that a new law was needed to provide greater equality of opportunity for pupils in independent schools—advice which, despite continued campaigning by the schools associations, has so far not resulted in agreed legislation. Italy is a signatory of the various Declarations of Human Rights.

The relevant clauses of the Constitution which guarantee the right to freedom of choice in education are as follows:

Article 33

3. Corporate bodies and individuals have the right to set up schools and educational institutions so long as no expense to the State is involved.

4. Within the legal control of the rights and duties of independent schools aiming at government recognition, schools must be guaranteed full freedom and their pupils an education equivalent to that in State schools.

5. For admission to the different kinds and stages, for leaving school and for qualification for professional training, a State examination must be passed.

Article 34

3. The ablest and most industrious students have the right to reach the highest level of studies, even if they lack the financial means.

4. The Republic makes this effective by means of bursaries, family assistance and special subsidies, which will be allotted by competitive examination.

Italy is unique among European countries in specifically forbidding direct subsidy to independent schools from government funds and by limiting assistance to individuals who are the 'ablest and most industrious' and even then by competition. The fact that the Constitution forbids general subsidy has the advantage of diminishing the exposure of independent schools to political attack from all but the extreme Left, though some, including Christian Democrats, argue that it permits financial subsidy where there is social benefit, especially if this is directed to individuals rather than schools. As a result, many communal and regional authorities distribute free books and pay travel and meal costs for pupils of independent as well as state schools.

2. Statistics

The independent sector is made up of two kinds of institution—nursery, primary and secondary *scuole* which are legally recognised and approved and match those in the state system and entirely private *corsi* which specialise in vocational and professional training, sport, languages and dance and whose role is either to enable adults or early leavers to take a higher level of diploma or to provide remedial tuition for secondary school pupils from the public sector who have failed to achieve promotion.

Ministry figures for 1981, which were more or less confirmed by other sources, suggested that 62% of independent primary and secondary schools which conform to state patterns *(con valore legale)* were controlled by the Church and the rest by lay authorities.

According to CENSIS figures for 1988, the most recent available, the sector educates about 1½ million pupils in all.

During the eighties Italy, like other countries, has registered decreases in the school population at primary and lower secondary level. Estimated percentages of the total school population in independent schools at each level are reported as follows for the school year 89/90:

Pre primary level. 48.2% despite a steady decline throughout the eighties by reason of an increase in state provision, which has affected lay schools more than Church ones.

Primary schools. 8.1%—consistent, though total numbers have declined somewhat more sharply than in state schools except for those run by the Church.

Middle Schools. 4.5%. Little variation. Numbers have declined less rapidly than in the state sector.

Upper Secondary. 9.1%—a drop of more than 2% from 1981/2, with further decrease likely since registrations in the first year are only at 7%. The decrease has been greater than in the state sector and has been most marked in Church schools.

These figures conceal considerable regional variations at the different levels, always to the disadvantage of the much poorer south. At pre-primary the NW and NE are far ahead (72%–61%) while at upper secondary level the percentages in the independent sector are highest in the NW (15.3%). At primary level the centre is ahead and at middle school level the NW. It is claimed that more than 13% of families use an independent school at some stage in their children's education and up to 20% in big cities like Rome and Milan.

Fees in independent schools range from about L1,000,000 to 8,000,000 a year for secondary education. Primary schools are less expensive.

There is also a number of international schools with foreign programmes which attract Italian pupils—e.g. St. George's English School, Rome, Sir James Anderson School, Milan, and the American School, Milan. Swiss and German schools and the French Chateaubriand Institutes are subsidised by their governments. There is a Rome International Schools Association with 16 members in all. International schools are not included in the statistics. Fees range between L14m and 15 m per annum on average at secondary level.

3. **Organisation and control**

a) ***Primary schools***

Recognised primary schools must conform to the state pattern and curriculum and are classed as 'parallel' *(parificate)*. Many receive some financial support from communal authorities.

b) ***Secondary schools***

There is a separate Directorate General of the Ministry of Education which is solely concerned with independent secondary schools. Its main purpose is, in the word used by one of its Directors, *vigilanza*—to see that the independent sector complies with the very complicated legal and administration regulations which concern it. An inspectorate attached to the Department helps to assess new applications as well as to control observance of regulations. In general the law makes a clear distinction between *scuole* which correspond to state schools and *corsi* which, as explained above, do not. Both may apply for registration *(presa d'atto)* from the Ministry, which involves some minimum standards. Legal recognition for schools which follow the state pattern involves control to ensure that educational objectives, courses, subjects, timetables, teachers' qualifications and conduct of examinations fulfil all the requirements. Schools which have the further title of *pareggiate or parificate* (recognised) must also conform in number of teaching posts and conditions of service. There are also regulations for the different types of school—e.g. for the new *licei linguistici*, which in the public sector are still classed as experimental schools, and for independent schools of art, music drama and dance which offer tertiary as well as secondary courses.

c) ***Ownership and control***

Independent schools may be owned and controlled by private individuals, by religious orders and Church authorities, by recognised governing bodies *(enti publici)* and by cooperatives. Some are established under the control of nominees of the communal authorities.

Teachers are employed by the school but in 'parallel' schools should technically have a teacher's diploma *(abilitazione)* like state employees, but many are in fact not so qualified. The state examination concerned was suspended for a long period in the seventies, making it impossible to qualify and obtain tenured status. Its reinstatement has helped teachers in independent schools to resist unscrupulous employers and to bargain over terms of employment through their different unions at national level. There are several different unions which wholly or in part represent teachers in independent schools, each affiliated to a political party. Teachers' contracts are enormously complex and detailed, covering pay, duties, pension rights, etc. Salaries in the independent sector are substantially lower than in the state sector, averaging L1,000,000 a month compared with L1,700,000. For this reason, for the first time ever, 30,000 teachers in Catholic schools staged a strike in December 1990.

4. Coordination

The interests of governors and owners of independent schools and of independent education generally, including relations with the Ministry, political parties and trades unions, educational programmes and pedagogy are the responsibility of a number of different associations, each involved with its own sector. All have elaborate regional organisations.

For the Catholics AGIDAE *(Associazione Gestori Istituti della Autorità Ecclesiastica)* is the Governing Bodies Association, which shares offices with FIDAE *(Federazione Istituti di Attività Educativa)* which is more broadly concerned with educational theory and curricular development. FIDAE has some 1,300 member schools, 450 of which have provision for boarders and upwards of 220 are nursery and primary teacher training schools. Both associations date from the mid-forties. They are represented on the CEEC, the European Committee for Catholic Education.

ANINSEI *(Associazione Nazionale Istituti non Statali di Educazione e di Istruzione)* was founded contemporaneously with the Catholic associations and on similar lines to cater for lay schools. It has more than 600 members representing all types of school and *corsi*, organised under regional committees in the 21 administrative regions of Italy.

FIINSEI *(Federazione Italiana Istituti non Statali di Educazione e di Istruzione)* is a somewhat more conservative association of lay schools. Addresses are listed in the Appendix.

5. The status and future of the independent sector

In 1983, when Private Education in the EEC was first published, there was evidence of continued growth in the independent sector especially in the bigger cities and in lay upper secondary schools, to which pupils transferred after completing their middle school education in a state school, and in *corsi*. The statistics from the CENSIS report for 1988 set out in Section 4 suggest that while the proportion of pupils attending independent primary and middle schools has remained steady overall despite losses in the lay schools, there has been a decline in popularity at upper secondary level, except for schools run by local communities, and more especially in the Church sector; and that this decline is matched by an equivalent rise of numbers in state schools.

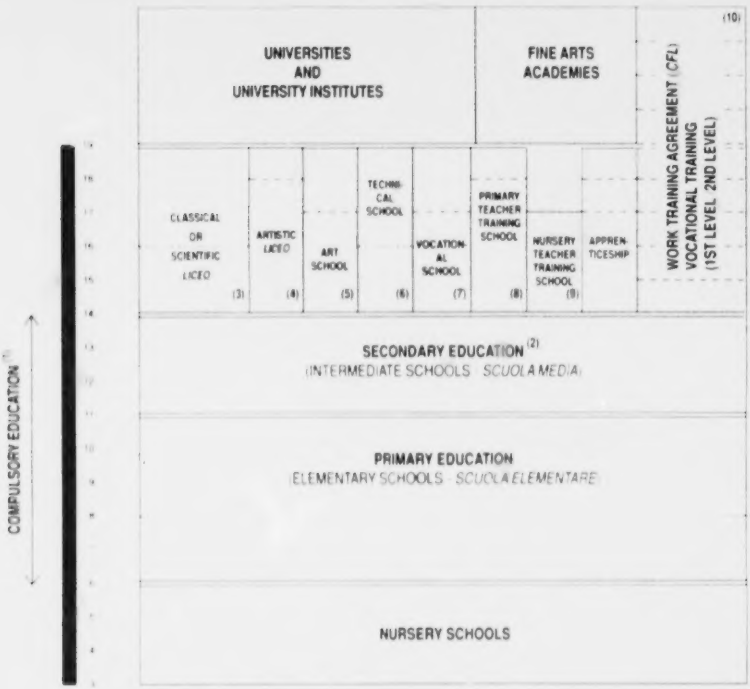
According to the 1982 CENSIS report 50% of private pupils are of middle class origin, 27.2% lower middle class and only a very small proportion come from upper class families. The popularity of transfer from the state sector is the more surprising as the Italian educational system, unlike that in other countries, is comparatively open at all stages in terms of qualifications and in the *licei classici* in particular academic standards are high. A lower secondary leaving certificate opens the way to all types of upper secondary course and a pass in the *maturità*, which more than 95% of candidates obtain, opens the way automatically to most university and higher education courses, where failures are for this reason desperately common. There is evidence that as in other countries of membership of a disciplined community of teachers and students backed by parental support helps to secure good examination results and avoid the need to repeat failed years. This is especially true of Catholic schools with their insistence on the principles of a Christian education. Admission to Catholic and some other schools involves a declaration by parents that they accept the school's educational aims; and in this way the Church continues to exercise very real influence over the broader aspects of the education they offer. Some leading schools controlled by religious orders are in fact especially highly thought-of and exclusive. *Corsi* are popular because they offer quickly acquired qualifications without frills or special coaching for the backward. The comparatively greater popularity of the independent sector in Rome and other big cities no doubt reflects the tensions and temptations of large urban societies.

As in all aspects of public life, there is fierce and long-standing argument on a variety of educational issues, mostly on party lines. The instability of Italian coalition governments and the proliferation of parties from Right to extreme Left result in many proposals for educational reform as varied as the abolition of independent schools and their subsidisation by the State, without any ensuing decision. A voucher scheme was put forward without success by Christian Democrats in 1979 on lines similar to the German system of *Ersatzschulen* and supported by the usual arguments for freedom of choice, variety and equality of opportunity. It was opposed by the lay independent schools as likely to result in loss of financial autonomy but appealed to the Catholics, whose schools are generally more socially comprehensive.

For the lay schools, ANINSEI argues that the present legislation affecting independent schools is out of date, allowing them only inferior status and depriving them of support. While the Church schools campaign for economic aid and incentives from government, they look for new legislation with less stringent financial and administrative controls offering real parity with the state sector, the rationalisation of widely different rules for vocational education laid down by regional authorities and less bureaucracy. With little hope of action domestically, they would like to see an EEC initiative to regulate the general principles governing the relationship between what they term 'public and private initiative'.

The general opinion is that education is not high on the list of political priorities and that the independent sector is unlikely to face any real threat of change in the forseeable future nor yet to be offered state subsidies by way of vouchers or capitation fees. There is some envy of independent schools but little resentment except in extreme Left circles. Public opinion is firmly in favour of a pluralist educational system in the name of democracy and freedom and the more so because of the strong influence of the Catholic Church in favour of Catholic schools on a predominantly, if not always practising, Catholic population.

ITALY



1 The Government has proposed to extend compulsory education from 8 to 10 years, that is, until 16.

2 *Scuola Media* (intermediate schools) provide comprehensive general lower secondary education with the school leaving certificate providing access to upper secondary schools.

3 5-year upper secondary general and classical or scientific course with the school leaving certificate (*Maturità*) providing access to all university education.

4 4-year general and artistic course leading to higher level courses. 5th complementary year leads to the upper secondary school leaving certificate providing access to all university education.

5 3-year general and artistic courses leading to employment. A further 2-year course has been established experimentally in certain schools leading to the applied arts upper secondary school leaving certificate which provides access to higher level artistic schools.

6 5-year general and technical course leading to technical school leaving certificate providing access to employment or higher or university education.

7 3-year general and vocational course leading to a « qualification certificate » and employment. 5-year experimental courses lead to the vocational school leaving certificate which is equivalent to the technical school leaving certificate.

8 4-year course of general and teacher education for primary school teachers also providing access to further study at university faculties of education. 5th complementary year provides access to certain university faculties.

9 3-year course of general and teacher education for nursery school teachers.

10 These courses can be entered at any age between 15 and 25 and lasted one to two years.

The work training agreement (CFL) with 1 to 2 years, including 4 months of theoretical training and 400 to 1 000 hours of theoretical training.

Vocational training courses for under the responsibility of the Regions. 1st level training lasts 2 years, 2nd level training lasts from 1000 to 1800 hours (according to the nature of the occupation) and is followed by a [illegible] examination.

Pursuit in the next type of education

alternative beginning or end of level type of education

Luxembourg

The national background

Education in the Grand Duchy developed slowly and on conventional lines during the nineteenth century. It was only after a long controversy between Church and State that a law of 1921 laid down clear regulations for public and independent primary education. Free secondary education for both sexes was introduced after the Second World War. There is no constitutional declaration about the right of parental choice and of the existence of independent education nor has Luxembourg signed the various declarations of human rights; but, as is natural in a Catholic country, there is strong support for pluralism and educational freedom. The official policy is to ensure for all residents, regardless of race, religion, sex or social class, equal rights of education, which is free and compulsory for nine years, and to provide university education outside Luxembourg after a preliminary first-year course. Three languages are current in a population of 370,000, French, German and Luxembourgeois, and are spoken and written in school. A competent knowledge of French and German is required for admission to secondary education.

Unlike Belgium, Luxembourg has a single national Ministry of Education which implements the relevant laws and is responsible for policy. Its staff is composed of civil servants and teachers on secondment. The management of the school system is partly devolved to local school committees in the communes and to private bodies of which the Church is the most important. All schools both public and independent are subject to inspection and pupils in independent schools are required to sit for public examinations for the award of certificates.

Pre-school education is available for four-year-olds, 90% of whom attend, is compulsory for five-year-olds and is partly subsidised. Less than 1% of schools at this level are independent. Primary education is from six to twelve with a further partly practical three-year course (called 'complementary') for those not going on to secondary school. Compulsory education continues until 15. Admission to secondary education is by examination in French, German and arithmetic. It is given in either a *lycée* or a *lycée technique*.

The academic *lycée* course, which lasts for seven years, is designed to prepare students for university studies and covers a wide range of subjects. It is in two stages, the first of which lasts for three years at the end of which successful pupils qualify for a certificate for the compulsory period of education. The final examination qualifies for university education. The technical course lasts for nine years in three cycles providing a variety of technical and vocational options and with the same certificate at the end of the first three-year cycle. A law of 1979 also provides for a form of comprehensive education *(tronc commun)* for the lower secondary stage. The two types of *lycée* are sometimes combined.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. **Statistics**

The independent sector is small and largely confessional with a great preponderance of girls. The latest available statistics which cover the present academic year, 1991-2, are:

Primary	218 boys and girls.
Complementary primary	218 boys and girls.
Secondary lycées	540 boys and girls.
Technical school	1,290 boys and girls.

These figures suggest a total of about 5% in the private sector, a ratio which has changed little over the last decade.

Independent schools educate no more than 1.6% of the total at primary level compared with 10% in the different types of secondary school.

One Catholic school has a primary department. At secondary level there are five Catholic day and boarding lycées. Two combine academic and technical courses and three are technical only. There are also three Catholic vocational schools for medical auxiliaries. The Institut Émile Metz is a lay coeducational school with 372 pupils providing technical and vocational education for state examinations. The *école professionnelle de Differdange* belongs to the steelworks, ARBED.

These apart, there is an European school working to the International Baccalaureat, an American primary and secondary school, an international primary school and a Waldorf (Rudolf Steiner) primary school.

There is no single association of independent schools, but two small groups of Catholic schools are listed in Appendix 1.

2. **Finance and subsidy**

Until 1980 independent secondary schools were not subsidised by the State, while public education was free during the compulsory years and only independent primary and higher educational establishments were subject to government authorisation and control. In the independent sector at primary level only a small number of girls were enrolled in fee-paying primary departments of the unsubsidised Catholic day and boarding schools, which, with the lay technical schools, found themselves during the 50s and 60s in great trouble over rising costs. A long-standing argument about their right to state subsidy was partially resolved in 1979 by a decision of government to make them an annual grant which, despite indexation, covered less than half of their annual work. In January 1982, government, increasingly aware that if the schools disappeared the whole cost of education would devolve on themselves, proposed a new law (no. 2555) which finally confirmed the right of existence of the independent sector in the name of freedom of choice, variety and competition and proclaimed the duty of government to protect the legitimate interests of pupils in it. The measure was fiercely debated in parliament and in the press from January to June with all the usual arguments deployed on both sides, including the charge that the state system would be deprived of resources which were used to aid independent schools and that the Church must not dominate a pluralistic and essentially lay society. The Christian Democratic Party and its allies finally succeeded in putting the law on the statute book and independent schools came under the new system from September 1982. Under this they have a contract with the State similar to those in France, under which they now receive 80% of the cost of salaries of qualified teachers and 40% of those of others, with a complicated system of capitation allowances for other costs. Buildings remain the responsibility of the trustees and fees are subject to government approval.

The estimated subsidy per pupil is just under 50% of equivalent state costs. The latest increase from the autumn term 1991 will add 24,100,100 BF to the former total of 41,500,000 BF, making a total for the year of 65,600,000 BF or a little more than a million pounds sterling.

Typical current fees for the Catholic schools for day pupils are 12,000 BF per annum. Boarders pay 24,000 BF a year with extra charges for typing and music lessons.

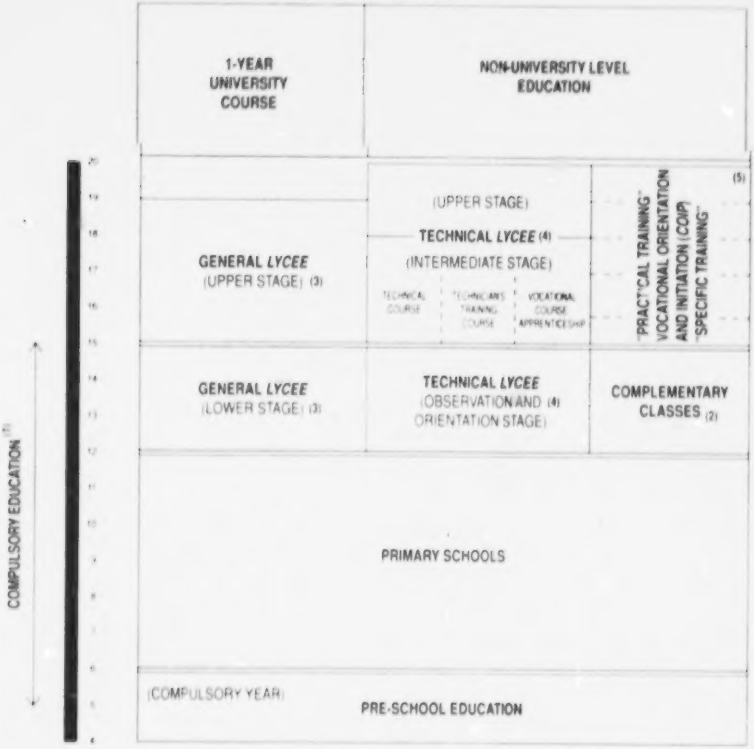
The Catholic day and boarding schools thus cater at very low fees for those who prefer single-sex education for girls or who wish or need their children to board. Even in the independent technical schools girls much outnumber boys. Government records suggest that more than 50% of their pupils come from working class homes, 25% are the children of craftsmen and tradesmen, 20% the children of officials and 5% those of farmers. About 25% are the children of foreigners domiciled in Luxembourg.

3. The status and prospects of the independent sector

Luxembourg, while avoiding the excesses of a real *guerre scolaire*, has been slow to recognise the benefits of widening choice and extending autonomy in education. Even more surprisingly for a Catholic country it has been slow to give recognition and support to independent confessional schools. The law of 1982 safeguards, at least for the present, the existence of a small number of lay and confessional independent schools and it seems unlikely that the political balance will change in favour of more radical left-wing views, despite some vigorous champions of a unitary, lay system of the kind which appeals to French and Spanish socialists. It would be hard, in any case, for a country for which membership of the European Community is so valuable an asset to disregard the European Council's Declaration of 1984 in favour of government subsidies to support variety and independence in the educational systems of member countries. Nevertheless, since secondary education for boys is almost exclusively within state schools and girls are now also well represented in them, there has been some shrinkage rather than increase in the proportion of pupils in the independent sector.

In comparison with the state schools whose curriculum and examinations they share the independent schools are valued for the usual variety of reasons—better discipline, their (mostly) Christian affiliation, the involvement of teachers, pupils and parents in a community and smaller classes. In terms of patterns of education based on an alternative pedagogy as yet only the Steiner school offers a wider variety of choice.

LUXEMBURG



1. Compulsory education includes one year of pre-school education for pupils aged 5.

2. Complementary classes (*classes complementaires*) provide a 3-year course in general and practically oriented subjects for pupils aged 12 to 15 who have completed 6 years at primary school but who are not allowed to transfer to secondary education (ie. they have not passed the entrance examination). The course leads to a diploma attesting completion of the complementary classes.

3. The General *Lycee* covers seven years of study divided into a lower stage (completing compulsory education) and an upper stage. The lower stage leads to a certificate attesting the completion of compulsory education. The upper stage leads to a secondary school leaving certificate which provides access to university education.

4. The Technical *Lycee* covers 8 years of study divided into an observation and orientation stage (completing compulsory education), an intermediate stage and an upper stage. The observation and orientation stage leads to a certificate attesting the completion of compulsory education. The intermediate stage comprises a technical section which leads to the upper stage or is completed by a practical apprenticeship leading to employment, a technician's training course, and a vocational section which includes parallel apprenticeship training in a firm leading to the certificate of technical and vocational proficiency providing access to employment. The upper stage leads either to a technical secondary education leaving certificate providing access to higher education or to a technician's certificate.

5. These courses are organized for unemployed young people. They last between 6 months and a year, sometimes on a part-time basis.

division of the level/type of education

alternative beginning or end of level/type of education

The Netherlands

The national background

The history of Holland since the foundation of the Dutch Republic in 1587 is one of evolutionary struggle for the establishment of a truly tolerant society in which minority religious, secular and racial interests are fully entitled to parity of esteem and support from a community with an originally Calvinistic majority which for a long time sought preeminence. As the outcome of a long period of struggle Dutch society has evolved what some sociologists call a 'columnar pattern' of separate, self-contained groups—the chief ones being Protestant, Catholic and 'neutral'—within whose precincts families tend to remain for most aspects of life; and although more recently their members shop around for some commodities, amongst them education, the distinction remain generally intact. Tolerance and respect for divergent views and ways of life are virtually universal.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1 The educational system and the legal and constitutional position of the independent schools

The educational system which has grown out of a long struggle in the 19th century was formally validated in Article 23 of the new Constitution of 1917. The right of all persons to provide education without interference from the authorities, subject to certain safeguards laid down by Parliament, had already been established in 1848. The 1917 Constitution directs government to ensure full respect of religious beliefs in state schools and parity of standards in state and independent schools. Independent schools are to have complete freedom to educate in accordance with their 'religious beliefs', which must be based on one of the religious or other beliefs found in Dutch society—a reaffirmation of the 'columnar' principle, which also extends to other collective services like health and the organisation of political parties and trade unions. Independent schools must also have complete freedom in the choice of teaching aids and the appointment of teachers.

The provisions in the Constitution were first implemented by a law in 1920 which decreed financial parity for public and independent primary schools so long as the latter conformed in terms of standards and conditions with their equivalents in the state sector, a provision which has now been extended to secondary and higher education as well. This law was the result of an agreement between the political parties in exchange for the acceptance of votes for women. Its financial terms include the provision of the capital cost of premises and running costs. Salaries, which are paid directly by the authorities, teacher qualifications and pensions follow the state norms and all schools must be open to inspection by state inspectors and take state examinations. The core curriculum is laid down by government, though not the choice of books and methods. The result is little possibility for educational initiative since free time in the curriculum is limited to about two hours a week, though the wind has been tempered to some extent for Steiner and similar schools whose programmes are based on their special pedagogical philosophies.

Primary education was reorganised in 1985 to cover the age range from 4 + to 12 +. Secondary education, despite changes made by legislation in 1968, remains essentially selective with division into four tracks of varying length in different types of school.

each with a transition class in the first years to allow transfer where necessary. Pupils aiming at University study for six years in the VWO track at an *athenaeum* (modern-language-based), a *gymnasium* (classical-based) or a *lyceum* (mixed-base school); HAVO schools provide a five-year course leading to higher vocational education; the 4-year MAVO schools lead to senior secondary vocational courses (MBO); and 4-year LBO schools mainly to apprenticeship training. As the accompanying diagram shows there is provision for sideways transfer both during and at the end of secondary school. Vocational and technical schools include courses in subjects such as seamanship, housecraft, business management, agriculture and art. There is also provision for special education. All these types are common to both the independent and the state sectors.

2. The size, financing and organisation of the independent sector

In 1988, according to the Central Bureau for Statistics in the Hague, 31% of the primary school population attended state schools and 69% independent schools compared with 28% and 72% respectively in 1970. The independent total of 69% can be broken down into three columnar 'religious' groups, Protestant 29%, Catholic 34% and Neutral 6%. At secondary level the independent schools accounted for 74% against 26% in state schools, with 27% in the Protestant, 37% in the Catholic and 6% in the neutral non-denominational group which includes Montessori, the 84 Steiner and similar schools. Each group is coordinated by its own umbrella organisation which combines associations of governors, teachers, parents and pupils and provides various support services including curriculum development and counselling. Details will be found in the Appendix.

To qualify for subsidy independent schools must be non-profit-making. They are allowed to charge small fees at secondary level ranging from Gld100 to 200 per annum for amenities, school visits and the like. For pupils of 16 years or over attending full-time secondary courses there is a fee of roughly Gld1,000 annually, but all students in secondary or higher education of sixteen years of age or over are entitled to a basic grant irrespective of parental income. Supplementary grants are available if parental income justifies them. According to law, failure to pay school fees does not give a private school the right to exclude a pupil.

The rate of subsidy in 1987, based on the equivalent cost in state schools, was about Gld3,750 per capita in primary schools and Gld5,890 in secondary schools. Most of the money, including the cost of teachers' salaries and capital costs, comes from central funds but some operating costs are paid by the municipality at the same rate as for its own schools and recovered from the centre.

Allowances for books and other departmental expenses are usually higher in the independent sector than in maintained schools and they look either to church funds or trusts to supplement the not very generous state allowances for capital provision and equipment, though this is strictly limited and controlled by the Ministry.

A small but increasing number of 'free' schools, including some Steiner schools which are not recognised by the Ministry at secondary level, charge the full cost to parents.

3. The status and prospects of Dutch independent education

In the Dutch system the State retains the general oversight and control of education while devolving choice of patterns of school upon parents and leaving schools themselves largely free to practise their own educational philosophy within the parameters imposed by finance, an overall pattern of subjects and examinations

and government inspection. Some commentators would characterise this system as virtually a voucher scheme whose main objective is to provide consumer choice while minimising discrimination by reason of inability to afford fees.

Since the provision of premises and funding is the same for all types of school, the curriculum plan (though not the choice of books and methods) is laid down by the Ministry and all pupils are candidates for the same compulsory public examinations, the main difference between them must stem largely from the attitudes and quality of the teaching staff and head and from the quality and motivation of the pupils recruited and from their success in creating a genuine sense of community. Most schools now issue a prospectus setting out details of aims and curriculum and the School Board includes, in typical Dutch democratic fashion, representatives of parents, pupils, staff and auxiliary workers. The Board appoints teachers and in the confessional schools only Christian teachers are considered.

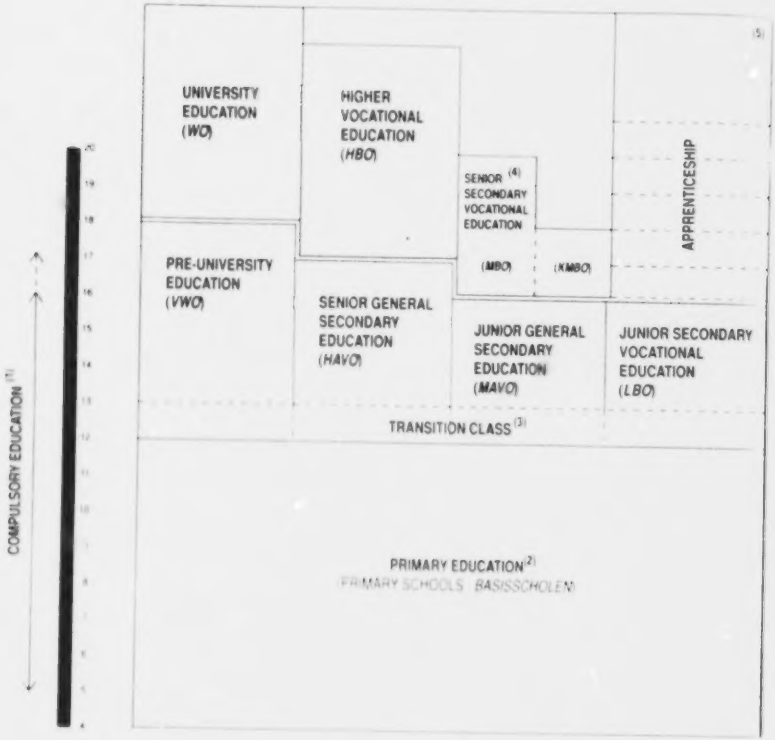
With little or no selection of pupils by ability and comparatively little by parental ability to pay fees, parents choose largely by their 'columnar' affiliation and with little regard to social class; but, as suggested in an earlier section, there is increasingly some crossing of frontiers for other reasons. For example, some middle-class parents opt on social grounds for a school in a down-town area and vice versa; and there is little reason to doubt that many parents select their independent school more for its quality than for reasons of faith, especially in the cities. In the country very rigid denominational loyalties tend to affect both daily life and choice of school more directly.

The system's merits are its commitment to parental choice and the virtual elimination of élitism ensured by parity of financing both between state and independent schools and within the two sectors and by the prohibition of more than minimal fees. Though most professional men and women are educated in independent schools this does not appear to give them special status in adult life or in the search for jobs and a *curriculum vitae* normally includes only a reference to higher education. On the other hand the uniform control imposed by law and in particular the impossibility of raising funds privately to improve standards by employing extra teachers and financing experimental work make it hard to achieve real excellence, to change the pattern of an intensive and dominatingly formal curriculum or to achieve an all-round, liberal education including a wide range of extra-curricular activities. Music, drama and games are regarded as a parental responsibility and must be sought outside school. This may help to explain why the Free School movement has expanded with such rapidity in the last decade and has won support for its campaign for subsidy from the Ministry for its unsubsidised secondary schools—for example, Steiner and similar schools which do not conform to the official patterns of organisation and curriculum but should, if parental choice is the determinant laid down by law, be eligible for subsidy.

Those involved in confessional schools comment on the continued dilution of their Christian influence and feel envious of the greater freedom of the neutral group, which has no central hierarchy to control it. They attribute it partly to the difficulty of recruiting well-qualified and committed Christian teachers within the constraints of the equal salary scale and partly to the restrictions of a time-table which allows only a nominal act of Christian worship and one or two periods a week of religious instruction. In the Catholic schools the virtual disappearance of teachers in orders whose cost was minimal has again tended to diminish fexibility. Despite the limitations of freedom of action and variety imposed on schools by the regulations of Dutch law in order to ensure as far as possible free parental choice regardless of income and to maintain the traditional liberalism of Dutch society, the independent sector offers

the best hope of increasing variety and experiment. One American observer describes the Dutch system of publicly-funded private education 'as an alternative mode of delivering quasi-public services (i.e. services which provide private as well as collective benefits)' but believes that the private schools have until recently reinforced the religious segmentation of Dutch society. With increasing pluralism and the breaking down of the 'columnar' boundaries, further liberalisation of government control may well lead to greater educational variety and freedom for innovation and experiment.

NETHERLANDS



1. Compulsory education lasts either 12 years full time (5 to 17) or full time from 5 until the end of the school year in which the pupil has reached the age of 16 followed by one year of part time compulsory education.
2. Separate pre-school education does not exist formally in the Netherlands. Primary education lasts for eight years. 4 to 12 (non-compulsory from 5). Provision for children below four is the responsibility of the Ministry of Welfare, Health and Cultural Affairs.
3. The transition class is the first year of secondary education and facilitates progression to the second year of more than one type of school.
4. Senior secondary vocational education provides 2 courses: MBO and 2 - part courses - KMBO which can lead either to MBO or to advanced apprenticeship.
5. Apprenticeship training lasts 2 to 3 years and advanced apprenticeship 4 to 5 years.

Entrance to the next type of education

Alternative beginning or end of next type of education

Portugal

The national background

Portugal joined the European Economic Community in 1986, some twelve years after the revolution of 1974 which marked a turning point in the development of modern Portugal and opened the way for the liberalisation of a somewhat old-fashioned system of public education in which the Church's dominant interest was safeguarded by a Concordat with the Holy See. The new fervour for democratisation of all aspects of community life was reflected in education, where it resulted amongst other things in the abolition of headmasters in schools, seen as symbols of past tyranny, and their replacement by school councils composed of elected teachers, parents, pupils and others. They are required to elect a Chairman from the teaching staff whose term of office, like that of other members, is limited to three years. In recent years teachers have increasingly refused nomination as Chairman, in which case the council must make three nominations to the Minister who then picks the Chairman. It is hard to see how a school can establish or maintain any continuous or effective policy under such a system and it is sad, though not untypical, that the generous, broad-minded and democratic principles which established the theoretical scheme of Portuguese education are not in this and in other ways matched by effective performance in real life. Law and administrative regulation proliferate in all branches of national life at the expense of decisive action; and economic shortages combine with a highly bureaucratic administrative system to intensify the problems which have beset all public systems of education in the last two decades.

As a result Portugal has much leeway to make up before it can claim parity with its fellow-members of the Community. 20% of the population were classed as illiterate in 1987. 70% of the present working population have no more than the six years of formal primary education which are compulsory from 6 to 12. The compulsory stage is to be extended to 15 by 1995/6 but the authorities hope to increase voluntary attendance until this age to 80% by 1993. There is a massive drop-out rate in the later years. Primary education is divided into two stages of four and two years respectively. There is a choice between three-year general and pre-vocational courses from 12 – 15 and at Upper Secondary level of a three-year academic course alongside a variety of courses in technical and vocational schools and apprenticeships. The government is also planning to introduce semi-independent technical schools under contract with government, somewhat on the lines of British City Technology Colleges.

National examinations taken in the last year of schooling were established in 1976. The Ministry of Education, which is responsible for inspection, curriculum development and all other aspects of education, lays down very detailed regulations based on equally detailed laws which involve schools in endless form-filling and inspection. Buildings and equipment need much improvement and shift working is not uncommon. It is perhaps not surprising that those who can do so opt for independent schools where headmasters and headmistresses are still in charge, though beset with returns and regulations. Overall the independent sector educates roughly 9.3% of the total school population.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. **The constitutional and legal sector**

Article 36, section 5 of the Republican Constitution of 1982 establishes the right and duty of parents to educate their children and in Article 43 sets out the following points:

a) Freedom to learn and teach is guaranteed.

b) The state may not claim the right to make education conform to any individual philosophy, aesthetic, political, ideological or religious pattern.

c) State education is not Church-based.

d) The right to establish independent schools or co-operatives is guaranteed.

Article 69 requires the state to co-operate with parents in the education of their children.

Article 74 is concerned with equality of opportunity and as an ultimate aim the provision of free education at all levels, including pre-primary.

Article 75, in addition to requiring government to create a full system of public education for all, sanctions subsidies for independent and 'co-operative' schools.

The Declarations of Human Rights have not been incorporated in the Constitution but their spirit is strongly reflected in it.

Laws 9 and 65 of 1979 clearly establish these constitutional principles.

Law 9 authorises the creation and running of independent schools according to their statutes, the control of their standards by government, their financial support by subsidies and contracts and parity of government awards and grants for their pupils. Schools which fall within the national system of education (see law 46/86 below) are exempted from main national taxes.

Law 65 is concerned with freedom in education as defined in the Constitution for parents, schools and pupils. Decree-law 553 of 1980 spells out in detail the relationship of independent and co-operative schools with the State. While the State retains its rights of authorisation and inspection, schools have freedom in matters of programmes, method and certification. This law also establishes a Consultative Council of Independent Education consisting of a representative of the Ministry of Education, namely the Director-General of Private and Co-operative Education, the Inspector-General, two representatives of independent school organisations, two representatives of the National Secretariat of Provincial Organisations and two representatives of teachers' unions. This body has some influence on educational policy and allows regular contact with the Ministry.

A further law, 46/1986, declares that independent schools which share the aims and methods of state schools will be considered as part of the national system of education, though they are free to follow their own ways if they wish and may be given official recognition after investigation. It promised further legislation, not apparently enacted, to make its provisions effective. Schools which follow the national educational objectives count as 'bodies of public utility' with legal advantages and their teachers are free of income tax on professional services like teachers in state schools. Teachers must have the same academic qualifications and professional diplomas as their colleagues in state schools.

Legally, therefore, freedom of choice, variety and a degree of equality of opportunity without regard to financial status are well protected. In practice stifling bureaucracy, the weakness of the economy and the educational preferences of a socialist regime combine to constrict the development of variety and experiment in independent schools (see section 4 below).

Financial aid to independent schools by government is given under three different types of contract and involves government audit. Private schools which serve an area where there is no public school receive a subsidy equal to the cost of equivalent state pupils under a contract comparable to a French 'contrat d'association'. They may

not charge fees and must give preference for entry according to laid-down rules. About a third of all schools conforming to the state curriculum are in this category. Other, mainly Catholic schools may have a 'contrat simple' with a negotiated subsidy determined by means test for children of poor parents. A third form of contract called *de patrocinio*, allows for partial subsidies towards the cost of curricular experiment, new teaching methods and extra-curricular activities. Law no. 37 of 1983 provided for loans on favourable terms for governing bodies of independent schools operating in conformity with state policies but was withdrawn in 1985. Other laws which afford them certain financial privileges as bodies of public utility are said to have little advantage. Fees are exempt from VAT but schools must pay tax on purchases.

Teachers and non-teaching employees alike are liable to a professional tax and social security charges.

The inspection of independent schools is strict. They are required to keep very elaborate records of pupil assessments, attendance and the content of lessons. While most of them seek what is called 'parallel' status under the Ministry regulations, some ten have opted for the further privilege of 'autonomy' which involves even more paperwork and expense in return for the right to make their own assessments. In 'parallel' schools a state school representative must be brought in before assessments are officially valid. Assessment is annual and those who do not succeed must repeat.

Financial aid from Government, which amounted to £7,500,000 in 1983, is clearly limited by economic stringency and is insufficient to give full effect to the relevant laws. It would not be reasonable to expect a radical government to give very high priority to increasing this expenditure for some time to come.

2. Statistics

The latest, though incomplete, independent school statistics available (for 1987/8 or 1986/7) are as follows:

Stage	Pupils	Establishments	Age	%
Basic education:				
1st cycle-primary	45,155	605	6-10	6.11%
2nd cycle-prep	27,919	188	10-12	8.55%
2nd cycle evening	372	?	—	4.30%
3rd cycle, jun. sec.	20,645	*171	12-14	5.87%
3rd cycle, evenings	6,735	57	12-14	—
Secundario:				
academic	9,596	*79	15-18	6.16%
technical	1,038	?	15-18	7.79%
special educn.	*3,481		all stages	—

* = Figures for the earlier year, 1986/7.

Note 1. More than one level may be combined in a single school. There were 1,021 schools in all in 1983. No information about later years available.

Note 2. The total school population in 1987/8 was roughly 1,800,000 up to the end of the secondary stage, of which 7% approximately were in the independent sector.

Note 3. There are also some 15 foreign schools in Portugal, two of them on British lines, and about 40 specialising in languages.

3. Organisational and administration

The overwhelming majority of independent schools are Catholic, some controlled by religious orders, some by the Bishops and some owned and run by lay councils, as in Spain. Most other independent schools, with the exception of foreign schools such as the highly-thought-of Irish Dominican School and the British schools at

Carcavelos (St. Julian's) and Oporto, are privately owned, often by the teachers who established them but sometimes by educational companies. In addition there are the few 'co-operative' schools already referred to which are jointly owned and managed by their members. The majority of schools follow the official curriculum and receive subsidy under a *'contrat d'association'*. The rest are mostly confessional in character and either have *'contrats simples'* or are very closely allied with the public system. While syllabi are laid down by the Ministry, the choice of texts is free as are methods of teaching. Some schools use Frenet or Montessori techniques at primary level. Portugal is the only European country other than Greece without a Steiner school. A Commission for the Reform of the Educational System established by the Ministry of Education published two reports in 1987 and 1988 respectively with proposals designed to bring basic and secondary education more into line with current European practice. They included proposals for new curricula for general and vocational education, revised statutes for school government, wider access to higher education and an independent university sector.

Roughly 400 schools belong to the Association of Representatives of Private Educational Establishments (AEEP), which is the larger of the two associations in membership of the Consultative Council (see section 1 above). AEEP is, like its counterparts in other Latin countries, responsible not only for relations with government but for negotiation of salaries of teachers and other employees with the unions concerned. A number of its members provide special education for the handicapped and others intensive or special courses (e.g. in languages). As in the state system there is also provision for night schools and for adults.

Coeducation is normal in most non-confessional schools, as in the state system. It is less frequent in Catholic secondary schools. 55 schools are listed as boarding schools, most of them Catholic foundations maintained by the orders.

Fees vary very widely. International schools like the Dominican Fathers School in Lisbon may charge a basic fee of upwards of £4,000 per annum which is more than doubled at St. Julians; and there are many extras. The average for member schools of AEEP is about £3,000 at basic level but varies according to stage beyond this.

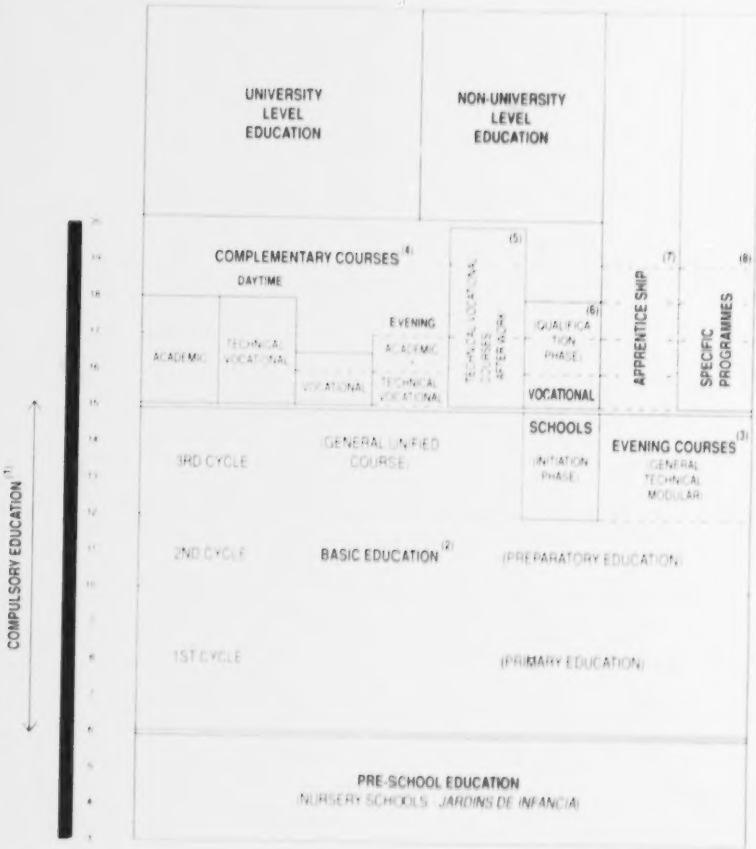
4. The status and future of independent education

Independent education is not in the political sense a burning issue to the extent it has proved to be under socialist governments in France and Spain nor does its possession guarantee an advantage in later life. It is theoretically approved on grounds of freedom of choice and practically tolerated by the governing socialist party, though it is anathema to the very orthodox Russian-linked communist party which proposed abolition in 1974/5 and lost votes as a result. Despite some fifteen years of post-revolutionary change, Portuguese society is still bound by many of the conservative traditions and habits of mind inherited from the past and is still run mainly by professionals who, having lost their posts in the revolution, have found their way back to positions of influence by accepting some at least of the new ideas. The Church, which once had a monopoly of education under the Concordat, is still a very strong influence in daily life and thought and the socialists, while not approving, pay it due deference, as their legislation makes clear. There is therefore no apparent real threat to the independent sector in political terms unless government swings more radically to the left. The standards of the public system, except in areas where the social background of parents helps to improve them, encourage those who can afford high fees to choose independent schools, at least for what they feel to be the vital years. Independent schools are valued mainly for the same reasons as their counterparts in

other countries—disciplined learning, teacher, pupil and parent involvement and the promotion of values based on religious or humanistic creeds. In fact, they are, with the exception of some international schools, essentially Catholic in allegiance.

The AEEP conducts a vigorous campaign for greater freedom from bureaucracy and for financial support on a scale which would give real momentum to the independent sector and realise the intentions of the Constitution for the establishment of freedom of choice, variety and accessibility regardless of parental income. They argue that the independent sector, being less expensive by reason of the contract system, is the leader in education in deprived areas; and that the contract system is a misnomer since the government will not negotiate or face up to the cost of real support. In reality, they claim, under the present system the cost to government of the education of 9.6% of the school population represents only 1.6% of the Ministry's general educational budget. Any real advance must depend not only on increased goodwill at government level but more importantly on the successful modernisation of the Portuguese economy and the administrative system generally as the country becomes more fully integrated in the European Community.

PORTUGAL



1. Until 1987, compulsory education in Portugal lasted 6 years, whilst compulsory attendance lasted until 14 years of age (ie. 8 years). The Basic Education System Law of October 1986 extended compulsory education to 9 years, applicable to pupils enrolled in the first year of basic education for the 1987/88 school year and for subsequent school years.
2. Basic Education comprises compulsory education of 9 years, consisting of three consecutive cycles of 4, 2 and 3 years respectively, and is roughly equivalent to primary and lower secondary level. The 3 cycles correspond to the former primary and preparatory education and general unified course.
3. 3 year evening courses of general or technical education for early school leavers and adults.
4. Complementary courses comprise upper secondary level 3 year daytime courses of academic or technical vocational education for pupils no older than 18 years of age. Vocational courses within technical vocational education comprise 1 school year and six months' work placement. 2 year evening courses of academic or technical vocational education are provided for students older than 18.
5. Technical vocational courses, 'after work', comprise evening courses equivalent to daytime technical vocational courses (which last 5 years), leading to employment after the 4th year or higher education after the 5th year. Students may also enter employment after the 2nd year.
6. Vocational schools are run jointly by the education authorities and the social partners. They include an initiation phase of 3 years and a qualification phase of 1, 2 or 3 years, providing access to higher education.
7. Apprenticeship is accessible to young people aged 15 to 24. It lasts 1 to 3 years.
8. Specific programmes of various lengths include, amongst others, the temporary employment scheme (mTE), the work training schemes and the integration preparation courses.

- direction in the main type of education
- alternative beginning or end of main type of education

Spain

The national background

Franco Spain

Until the end of the sixties education in Spain was largely based on conservative, nineteenth-century patterns, with mainly church-controlled, fee-paying primary education for the masses and secondary education of a formal academic kind for the well-off. In 1931 the Republican government, while continuing to respect the rights and responsibilities of parents and the churches, increased the supervisory powers of the state and decreed that primary education should be free and compulsory and that there should be financial help for the needy at all stages. State schools were extended and must be non-clerical; and the religious orders were forbidden to run schools, and were forced to operate through specially established limited companies, some of which — for example *Sociedad Anónima de Enseñanza Libra* — still exist, so that the schools they operate are still classed as 'lay' in government statistics. After 1939, Franco re-affirmed the right of all citizens to general and vocational education on Christian lines and to freedom of choice of school, introduced a partial subsidy for private primary education and proposed to extend the availability of academic secondary education beyond the big city centres. A general law on education *(Ley 14/1970 de Educación y Financiamento de la Reforma Educativa)* promulgated in 1970 contained more fundamental proposals for reform and for the extension of equality of opportunity on lines similar to those already being developed in other European countries. It was designed to 'socialise' the school and university systems and laid down a pattern of public and private primary and secondary educaiton which has only recently begun to undergo radical change.

Article 5.2 guaranteed parental rights and defined parental duties as follows: *'The family has a duty and a primary inalienable right to educate its children. It follows that it is under a legally binding obligation to meet or arrange to meet the established standards of compulsory education, to help its children to take advantage of available opportunities for further education, and to foster the functioning of education establishments.'*

Article 5.3 stated: *'Parents .... have the right to free choice of legally established schools and to regular information about essential aspects of the educational process.'*

Article 2.2 laid down that basic education *(EGB = Educación Generale Básica)* from 6+ to 14+, consisting of five years of primary and three years of lower secondary school, should be compulsory and free, and that the first cycle of vocational training (FP1 = Formación Professional) available for those not going on to the general, academic secondary stage *(BUP = Bachillerato unificado y polyvalente)* should also be compulsory and free; and Article 94.4 added that by 1980 at the latest both EGB and FP1 should be free in both public and private schools. Article 96, while giving first priority to the state sector, required economic provision for both kinds of school at these levels to be sufficient to make the principle of free education properly effective. This pattern of education, shared by both public and private sectors, was inherited by the restored Kingdom and is only now under revision by the present Socialist Government to assimilate it more closely to systems common in other European countries.

Post-Franco Spain

The economic crisis, which beset Franco's government in the 70s and has continued to plague the present government, has prevented the full implementation of the economic provisions for free education even in the public sector and is still the cause of much public concern among parents and school authorities of all kinds. Education in Spain is seriously underfunded. After Franco's death educational issues were inevitably bound up with the political struggle, but the 1978 constitution of the new Republic in Article 27 confirmed the right of parental choice in education established by the law of 1970. It also provided for the distribution of responsibility for education between the State and the seventeen Autonomous Communities into which Spain is now divided. Under this clause the State retains overall control of policy, standards, financial planning and inspection, somewhat on North American lines, while the Autonomous Communities, each with its own Department of Education, manage their schools with the help of the transfer of necessary resources from the State. By 1983 six Communities had been granted these rights, the first being Catalonia and the Basque Country, where the spirit of independence is especially strong. Another important influence had its origins in the highly developed pattern of democratized control enshrined in Spanish labour legislation. This finds one of its strongest expressions in what is called *libertad de cátedra*, the teacher's right to unrestricted independence and freedom of conscience, (which can cause problems in the common-rooms of religious-based schools) and in union support for democratisation of school management.

The effect of these influences can best be illustrated by the terms of two recent laws of education. The first of these is the Organic Law (i.e. which can only be overturned by an absolute majority of the Cortes) of June 21st 1980, the *Ley Organica de Estatutos de Centros Educativos (LOECE)*, in which statutes for educational establishments were laid down. Its relevance to independent schools and the disputes it has aroused will be explained more fully in section 4. In 1983 the Socialist Government of Senor Gonzalez, which came to power in 1982, proposed new legislation known by the acronym LODE *(Ley Organica del Derecho a la Educación)* which was designed to guarantee free basic education for all and access for those suited to it to higher levels regardless of means, social status or place of residence. It reaffirmed the constitutional rights of parents to opt for private education and for their children to be given whatever pattern of religious or moral training they preferred; the right of *libertad de cátedra* for teachers; of parents' associations to involve themselves in the educational process; and of pupils to form 'unions' and share in decision-making. It also guaranteed the right of teachers and other employees and parents in all schools to hold meetings. Three further sections laid down detailed regulations for state schools, for aided private schools (now to be called *concertados*) and for wholly private schools. For the first two groups these imposed government by school councils consisting in state schools of a principal elected by council members, the director of studies, five teachers elected by their colleagues, a representative of the administrative staff, six elected parents and students, a representative of the local authority and the school secretary. LODE's reception by and relevance to private schools will be considered in section 4. It became law, after protracted argument, in 1985 and was made operative for the academic year 1986/7.

Though the intentions of successive governments are clear enough, performance, as so often in Spanish affairs, has fallen far behind—not only for lack of adequate financial resources to implement them, but because teachers and administrators have failed to respond to the challenge of reform. Spanish public schools and all but the most élite private schools are sparsely equipped compared with their European

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equivalents and even in the public schools the funds provided are often insufficient for bare necessities without the help of a levy on parents which defeats the concept of free compulsory education.

Four years of experiment with new programmes have recently come to an end and in 1990 proposals were presented to the Cortes for the extension of compulsory education from 14 to 16 involving a re-organisation of secondary education from 12 – 18 in three cycles, the first two forming *Educación Secundaria Obligatoria* and offering a common curriculum and the third, the *Bachillerato*, a choice of options. The new Ley Organica *(Ley de Ordenación del Sistema General Educativo, LOGSE)* became law in 1990 and is still the cause of much controversy. It involves reform at all levels of pre-University education and implementation began in 1991. It is expected to take ten years for the completion of the change-over to the new system.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. The organisation of education in the private sector, which Spaniards call 'the sector of social initiative', closely follows the pattern of the state except in the British and other foreign schools, for which see section 3 below. In the state system schools at all levels from 6 to 18 are, technically at least, free except for small payments in the pre-university year, at present called COU.

Controls

Private schools called *concertados* receive subsidy from government under regulations laid down in the appropriate sections of LODE, are more strictly subject to government regulation than the minority of entirely self-sufficient institutions and must conform to the patterns of management and organisation referred to above.

Title IV of LODE sets out in detail the terms of the standard agreement which governs subsidised EGB schools and FP1 courses, which are also part of compulsory education and, like EGB, officially free. Salaries and running costs are to be paid by government and schools may not charge fees or make a profit. Admission of pupils must be on the same basis as in state schools, and teachers, parents and pupils must share in management by representation on the School Council. In reality, many private schools at these levels are not yet free, since government has found it impossible or is unwilling to make the necessary grants in full and school trustees are forced to make up the shortfall by charges or in other ways.

Separate individual agreements *(conciertos singulares)* are concluded with schools which receive full or partial subsidy at the non-compulsory stage—i.e. Pre-escolar, BUP and FP2. There are, however, some FP1 courses also under *concierto singular* where modest fees are payable. Many private schools cover more than one stage of education with, as a result, different financial arrangements for separate levels.

Unsubsidized schools must register with the Ministry of Education and Science and, when this applies, with their autonomous community and must satisfy minimum requirements guaranteeing their educational standards in respect of premises, teacher qualifications, pupil-teacher ratio, equipment and other services. Otherwise they have complete freedom in educational method and policy. Special arrangements apply to the schools in membership of the National Association of British Schools in Spain for which see section 3 below.

2. Statistics

a) *Pupil numbers and market share*

According to a report by Eurydice, published in 1989, the private sector as a whole in 1986 educated 1,192,192 or 34% of the total numbers in primary schools;

807,229 or 35% of the total in lower secondary schools, of whom 26,374 were in technical vocational courses; and 694,839 or 29% of the total in upper secondary schools, of whom 311,455 were in technical/vocational courses. Overall 2,694,260 or 33% of the total school population at all these levels were in private schools. In addition 425,291 or 37% were in nursery (pre-escolar) classes. At all four levels 1,823,840 or 68% were in Catholic schools, full details of which are reported annually in the *Guia* published by FERE.

More recent figures on a different basis for the independent sector as a whole in 1988/9 are as follows:

Pre-escolar:	387,650 pupils in 12,600 establishments (38.03%).
EGB	1,830,806 pupils in 54,547 establishments (53.33%).
BUP and COU:	44,524 pupils in 1,397 establishments (30.33%).
FP1 and FP2:	265,966 pupils in 1,139 establishments (51.45%).

Over the past decade, in which the total school population has followed the same downward trend as in other countries, there has been a steady but slow diminution in the proportion of pupils attending private as opposed to state schools, the result mainly of the extension of state education in rural areas, increased provision generally and the hostile manipulation by government of the regulations for subsidising aided schools. The fall in overall numbers has been largely in the pre-escolar and EGB stages, while at upper secondary level (BUP/COU and FP2) there has been an increase, especially in the state system.

According to the *Guia* for 1990/91 the total in equivalent Catholic schools was 1,761,193, a further modest decline. The same source estimates that Catholic schools account for 64.4% of all private pupils at preescolar level, 67.2% at EGB, 55.4% at BUP/COU and 43.8% at FP level.

All these statistics refer to the old pattern of education now in process of reform.

b) ***Teacher-pupil ratios and class sizes***

Roughly 33% of all teachers work in the private sector, exactly in proportion to their relative size. Pupil-teacher ratios in Catholic schools in 1991 were as follows:

Pre-escolar 31.1:1; EGB 28.3:1; Special education 8:1; BUP/COU 17.6:1; FP 1 and 2 18.1:1.

Classes at all levels vary from 33 in pre-escolar to 37 in BUP.

c) ***Fees***

It should be remembered that although education in EGB and FP1 classes is nominally free in the private sector, schools which have no resources of their own can only survive by making a charge. Fees, when applicable, differ according to the type of contract – full or partial. They are payable monthly for ten months in each academic year.

Fees in Catholic private schools in 1988 were as follows:

Preescolar	no subsidy —	4,000 – 12,000 pesetas per month
EGB	full subsidy	nil
	partial subsidy	2,000 pesetas
BUP	partial, type A	750 pesetas
	no subsidy	7,000 – 14,000 pesetas
FP1	full subsidy	nil
	partial subsidy	435 pesetas
FP2	partial, type A	750 pesetas
	partial, type B	2,000 pesetas

Fees in lay private schools not under Catholic control and without a state contract show wide differences but are often more expensive than in Catholic schools.

d) ***Scholarship grants (Becas), allowances and capital grants***

Grants to pupils: Government provided 34m pesetas for grants at pre-escolar level and 3,000m for BUP pupils in 1987. Pre-escolar grants were of 33,000 pesetas. There were no grants for EGB which is notionally at least free. Pupils at FP and BUP levels who qualify received 65,000 pesetas.

The Basque region and Navarre offer grants of P20,000 a year to pupils in pre-escolar and P26,000 for the three years of BUP.

Capital grants and loans: In 1987 government made grants or loans of P150m, and in 1988 of P300m.

3. **The organisation of the independent sector**

a) ***'Church' and 'Neutral' schools***

More than half of all private schools are owned and directed by the Catholic hierarchy and the Religious Orders. Of the remainder, the lay or neutral schools, some, for example those belonging to the Opus Dei group, are closely associated with the Church, while others are unaffiliated. According to an authoritative article published in 1978, 57.5% were Church schools and 42.5% belonged to the 'neutral' category. Twelve years later in 1990 the ratio was more favourable to the Catholic schools despite the decrease in numbers in the sector as a whole, much of which must be attributed to the Government's failure to make the private *concertados* genuinely free to parents. In 1989/90 Catholic schools claim to have educated 22.7% of all pupils in pre-escolar, 22.6% in EGB, 17.2% in BUP/COU and 14.2% in FP1 and 2.

b) ***Coordination***

There is no single coordinating body. While Catholic Schools come under the supervision of the Church authorities or the Orders, they, like other members of the private sector, are in membership of one or more of a number of associations formed to look after the interests of the different types of school.

The most significant groupings are:

i) The **Confederación Española de Centros de Enseñanza (CECE),** founded in 1977. Its objectives are the defence of the principle of freedom in education, of sufficient and equal financial provision for pupils in both public and private schools, of opportunity and of the right of parental choice in education. Its members include associations of private schools at national, provincial and local level and, in addition to schools providing EGB, BUP and normal FP1 and 2 vocational courses, several thousand institutions for such things as hairdressing, languages, tourism and driving. CECE is organised in provincial associations with their own officers and councils. Until 1989, when the Catholic Orders established a separate Association, the *Confederación de Centros Educación y Gestión*, it alone negotiated national scales of pay and conditions of service with teachers' unions for its member organisations as well as maintaining links with the Ministry of Education and Science and government in general. It is also much involved in discussion of the methodology of teaching and in in-service training. In 1987 it organised two major conferences on the reform of the educational system, one of which examined Spanish education in the context of educational experience and experiment in other EEC countries. Its President, Angel Martinez Fuertes, an Augustinian, has an influential voice in national debate. Its membership of Catholic schools has been much reduced by transfer to the new Confederación.

ii) The **Federación Española de Religiosos de la Enseñanza (FERE),** founded in 1958, is primarily an association of schools controlled by the religious orders. It has about 2,700 member schools (with 6,282 separate levels), is controlled by an assembly of provincials chosen by the provincial directors and has well-organised branch associations in the provinces and autonomous regions. Its long-time secretary-general, Padre Santiago Martín Jiménez, is Vice-Chairman of the European Committee for Catholic Education. FERE campaigns vigorously through the press and in its own journal for freedom of choice and the religious dimension in education, and against government discrimination against private schools. Like CECE, it is also actively involved in pedagogical and curricular development on behalf of its members, and maintains a highly efficient statistical department which publishes the *Guia*, and a publicity office.

iii) The **Confederación de Centros Educación y Gestión,** the newly formed Association of Governing Bodies of Catholic Schools, has been established at the instigation of FERE to coordinate management policy in the Catholic Schools, to represent them with government, the unions and the general public and to promote the use of new technologies. Like CECE, the Confederación is in membership of the European Council of National Associations of Independent Schools (ECNAIS). Its Chairman, Luis Alvarez Torres, has been appointed, not without opposition, to the State Educational Council and its membership includes more than 70% of private Catholic schools, more than 50% of them *concertados*.

iv) The **Associación de Centros Autónomos de la Enseñanza (ACADE)** represents some 850 educational institutions which do not qualify for or do not wish to receive state subsidies. Most of them specialise in some kind of vocational course outside the state system but they include a number of regular private schools, half of them in Madrid, which charge high fees and cater for what may be called the non-church élite and the professional classes. ACADE schools were mostly founded by teachers who wished to follow a particular educational programme but are increasingly turning into limited companies. They are in general better staffed and better provided than most and their old-boy networks are strong and influential in later life.

v) **Opus Dei Schools.** Several groups of expensive, very well-founded Catholic schools are indirectly controlled by Opus Dei. One group (FOMENTO) has some 30 schools, mainly in the Madrid area, and another (IFE) has 6 member schools in Barcelona. The schools are owned, technically at least, by parent groups. A small number now receive subsidy.

vi) **Lay coeducational schools.** These are groups of 'open', experimental schools, often with strong affiliation with regional movements and are usually financed through parents' cooperatives. They are particularly strong in the Basque provinces (where they are called '*ikastolas*') and in Catalonia and there are others in the Madrid area. Those in Catalonia form the **Confederación de Centros Autónomos de Catalunya.**

vii) The **National Association of British Schools in Spain** was founded in April 1978. It embraces schools throughout Spain and the Spanish Islands, ranging from nursery to secondary level. All must be authorised by the Spanish Ministry of Education. Many of them, termed 'mixed schools', are required to have a minimum of 25% of Spaniards on their roll and must offer secondary courses in Spanish Language and Literature and Social Studies which are supervised by Ministry inspectors and are recognised as equivalent to those in Spanish schools.

One of the largest is King's College, Madrid, which has more then 1,000 day and boarding pupils from nursery to VIth form level. 'Pure' schools offer a completely British education and are free of inspection but may not accept Spanish pupils. All foreign schools must be vouched for by the appropriate embassy and British schools are inspected periodically by British inspectors through the agency of the British Council. The strength of these schools and their attraction to Spanish parents gives them a special importance and is paralleled by the popularity of English Language Schools for adults.

viii) The private sector also has the support of vigorous federated parents' associations and since May 1987 of a students' union, **La Confederación Autónoma Nacional de Associaciones de Estudiantes (CANAE),** whose principal objective is the support of the constitutional right to freedom of choice in education. There are also unions for teachers in the private sector.

4. **The status and future of the private sector** *(el sector de iniciativa social).*

Since the re-establishment of the Spanish Kingdom there have been two main areas of concern amongst Spanish private schools—firstly their inability to achieve parity of funding with the state sector, without which most of them, and especially the Catholic schools, believe real freedom of choice and equality of opportunity are not attainable and which they argue are implicit in the Constitution; and secondly because of the threat to their independence which they believe to be no less implicit in the 1980 Law of Education (LOECE)—viz: the requirement to establish governing councils of teachers, parents and non-teaching staff and the consequent loss of control by the Church authorities or owners—which was intensified when the Socialist government led by Señor Gonzalez took office in 1982 and declared a preference for a single, lay, state system of education. Its new Law of Education, LODE, first proposed in 1982, while repeating the constitutional guarantees, contained a number of measures in addition to those of LOECE which the schools feared would further impinge on their independence. As in France, there was talk—for example, by Angel Martinez Fuertes, the President of CECE—of a 'guerre scolaire' and legal action was taken to question the legality of the proposals, which as a result did not finally become effective in amended form until 1986. The LODE system of subvention to private EGB and FPI schools set out in section 3 above should have made education at these levels free in private as well as in state schools, but because both of government hostility and of the chronic weakness of the Spanish economy private schools under subsidy continue to be underfunded in comparison with their state equivalents, which in their turn are poorly provided in terms of staffing and equipment compared with schools in most EEC countries. Since schools under full as opposed to individual contract cannot legally charge fees and are rarely in a position to find extra finances, staffing ratios and general provision tend to fall away. As a result more than 400 schools whose resources were somewhat better than average have withdrawn from their contracts since 1986. The government's financial proposals for 1988 for example, which were bitterly criticised by the private school associations, showed clearly both that state schools were underfunded and that there was no real possibility of private schools achieving parity with state schools, especially at secondary level where they are mostly unsubsidized. While state nursery schools were to have extra free places, and EGB schools subsidy for school meals, transport and the improvement of physical education, information technology, languages, etc., private schools suffered a reduction in grant for running expenses, while schools under the less advantageous 'concierto singular' had not yet become 'fully' subsidised as LODE required.

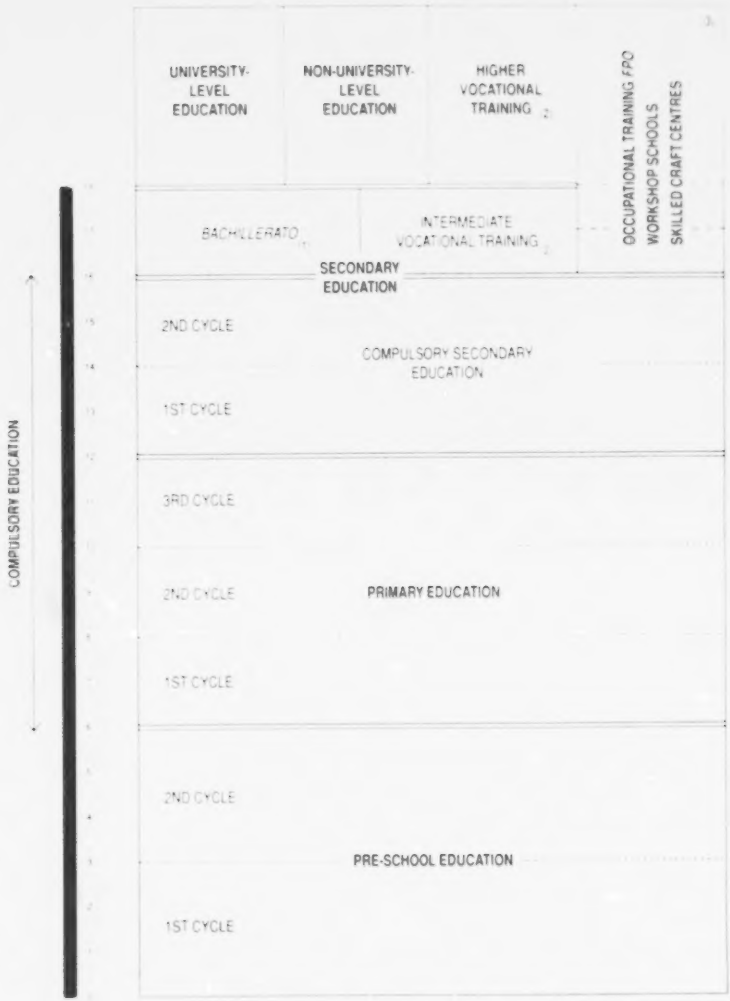
A third preoccupation is the government's new laws for the reform of education which were the outcome of a four-year period of limited experiment from which the private

schools have been largely excluded. As was explained in the section on national background, they chiefly concern education from 12+ and involve changing to a more typical European pattern with two two-year cycles of compulsory schooling from 12+ to 16+ followed by two years of advanced secondary education offering a variety of choice. The private schools hope for the extension of 'free' education at least to 16 in subsidized schools and are anxious to be involved in the detailed discussion of the proposed changes. Their implications in terms of the cost of reorganisation and buildings have yet to be faced.

It will be seen that the private sector in Spain, with its predominance of Church-based schools but a wider range and greater variety of allegiance then in France or the Low Countries, has been less successful so far than its mostly Church-based equivalents in those countries in resisting attack from the left and obtaining parity of funding. Though it falls far short of the 70% share of the almost entirely confessional and fully subsidised private schools in Belgium and Holland, it is twice the size of its French equivalent, in which 95% of all private schools are confessional schools under contract. It is also far larger in size than the independent sector in, say, Germany where both confessional and lay schools conforming to state patterns of education achieve 75% subsidy and are in most Länder not at present under severe pressure from left-wing politicians. As in other EEC countries it can, if the opinion polls can be believed, count on at least a 60% majority in favour of freedom and parental choice in education, but the value of this support is being slowly diminished by the effect of rising costs and fees and insufficient resources despite parental preference for the discipline, devotion to ordered study and involvement of teachers and pupils which mark the private schools out from the majority of state schools. If the government succeeds in funding and extending the public system more adequately and continues its discriminatory policies towards the independent sector, the maintenance of standards in private schools is bound to involve higher fees. As a result the schools will tend to become less representative, even though Catholic parents of all classes will continue to make sacrifices to send their children to them.

Their cause is both helped and hindered by other strands in Spanish society which are the subject of much debate between the parties and amongst the public generally—the case for regional autonomy and devolution, trades union rights, including those of freedom of conscience for teachers and democratic participation in management, and the conflicting claims of secularism and Christianity. Spain is only now coming to terms with its entry into Europe and learning to adjust a complicated and hierarchical society, which under forty years of totalitarian rule had remained largely unaffected by the current of social change operating in the democratic world, to the bewildering problems of economic survival and the satisfaction of the differing demands of pluralism. On all fronts progress has been impressive, but in education as in other ways there is a lot of leeway to make up, and a good deal of latent conservatism amongst school governors and teachers. Until economic pressures are lessened, the educational system as a whole will continue to lag behind its contemporaries elsewhere, and a socialist government will be able to ensure that the case for fairer subsidy for the private sector will receive less than its due attention. Whether those who support it so bravely are right to campaign for absolute parity with state schools in terms of funding, which means giving up the right to charge some fees and vastly reduces the opportunity for experiment and for promoting variety in educational provision, or should settle for a solution more on French or German lines is an open question which might well lead to an eventual compromise. Under the present government the price of full subsidisation, if it could be afforded, would undoubtedly be to diminish further the independent sector's scope for innovation and variety of educational pattern.

SPAIN (POST-REFORM)

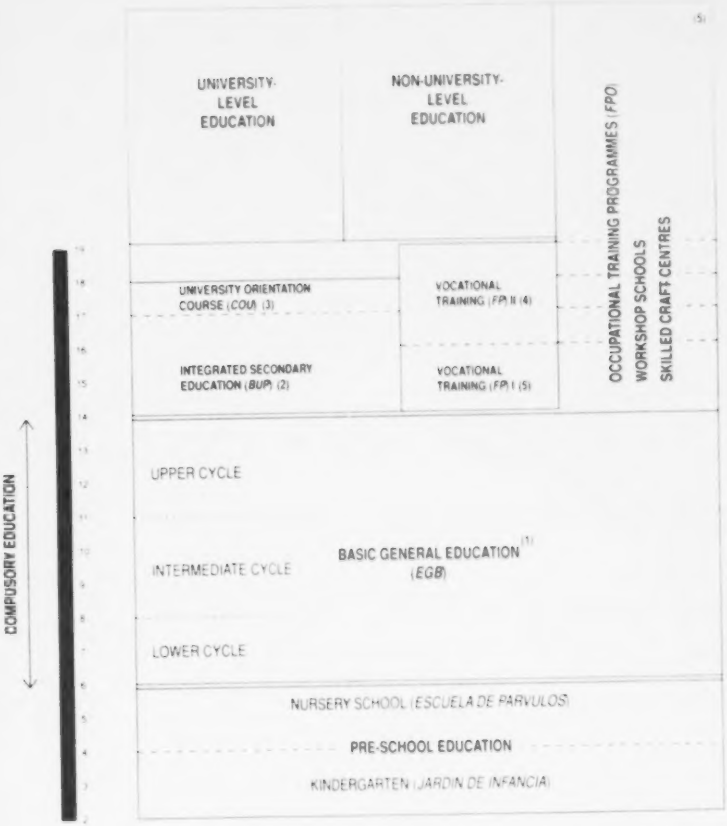


1. Bachillerato comprises general education at upper secondary level providing access to higher education and to employment.
2. Intermediate and Higher Vocational Training comprises specific vocational training for employment. The diploma obtained at the end of Higher Vocational Training will also give direct access to certain related university courses.
3. These training courses can be entered at any age between 16 and 25. The occupational training programmes (FPO) last 800 hours training in the workshop schools lasts 1 to 3 years, and in skilled craft centres 6 to 12 months.

Access to the next type of education

alternative beginning or end of next type of education

SPAIN (PRE REFORM)



1. *EGB* (*Educacion General Basica*) or basic general education covers the 8 years (6 to 14 years) of compulsory education. There is no division between primary and lower secondary education. *EGB* leads to upper secondary education or to lower level vocational training.
2. *BUP* (*Bachillerato Unificado Polivalente*) comprises general education at upper secondary level, preparing for access to university.
3. *COU* (*Curso de Orientacion Universitaria*) comprises a one- year university orientation course.
4. *FP I* (*Formacion Profesional I*) comprises 2 years of general education and vocational training leading to *FP II*, the second year of *BUP* or employment.
   FP II comprises 3 years of general education and vocational training leading to certain related university courses, or employment.
   Evening courses in *FP* are available for employed persons over 16 (*FP I*) and 18 (*FP II*).
5. These training courses can be entered at any stage between 16 and 25. The occupational training programmes (*FPO*) last 600 hours training in the workshop schools lasts 1 to 3 years, and in the skilled craft centres 6 to 12 months.

division in the level/type of education

alternative beginning or end of level/type of education

The United Kingdom

The national background

The United Kingdom has no written constitution and Parliament, by reason of its function as law-maker, is subject only to national tradition, enshrined in the Common Law, and to the will of the electorate. It has formally accepted the various international and European Declarations of Human Rights but these have not been incorporated as such into English law whose ultimate Appeal Court is the House of Lords. Legal contol of education in England and Wales stems from Education Acts, in modern times notably those of 1944 and 1988; and there are separate Acts for Scotland and Northern Ireland. The Secretary of State for Education heads the Ministry of Education for England and Wales which is also responsible for university education throughout the UK; and there are separate offices under the control of Ministers in Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales for non-university education. These offices lay down the principles and rules for the separate national public educational systems, the administration of which is largely devolved to Local Education Authorities, some 105 in number in England and Wales, 12 in Scotland and 5 Education and Literary Boards in Northern Ireland. The regulations of the four central authorities affect independent schools only in requiring registration to ensure that premises are suitable and that schools are conducted by suitably qualified persons. A requirement for their inspection by Her Majesty's Inspectors for inclusion in a list of approved schools has now been abandoned.

The maintained (i.e. public) system of education which these four offices administer differs from that of most European countries by its decentralisation. They neither provide nor administer schools or colleges nor determine their detailed curricula, except that a newly devised National Curriculum now lays down general rules for subject range and content and for testing of attainment at different levels of age. In general the control of education and of educational expenditure devolves on Local Authorities and increasingly is further devolved to the governing bodies and heads of individual schools. The Government has also instituted a new system of semi-independent 'grant-maintained schools' free from Local Authority control and directly financed from the central Ministry. Local authorities have virtually no jurisdiction over education in independent schools but may take up and pay for places at them.

The system of public examinations—the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) in England and Wales, followed two years later by A levels which admit to university level higher education, and their equivalents in Scotland and Northern Ireland—is devolved in like manner to independent examination boards responsible to the Ministry concerned.

There is also great diversity in types of school and the age-ranges they cover. In England and Wales the commonest pattern is for primary education to cover the ages 5–11. Secondary schools, either comprehensive or selective according to the pattern favoured by the Local Authority, take pupils from 11+ to 18 but there is an increasing tendency for transfer to Sixth-form Colleges for the final 2-year A level stage. These colleges are to become autonomous under direct Ministry control. There are also in some regions Middle Schools from 9 to 14. Vocational education in school has until very recent years been poorly provided and only in the state system but the government is introducing reforms designed to give it parity with general academic education and qualifications. For the patterns of education in Scotland and Northern Ireland see the relevant diagrams.

In Northern Ireland there is one wholly independent preparatory school and 52 voluntary grammar schools with independent status, which receive a grant from the Northern Ireland administration and charge fees. The voluntary schools have 41,684 pupils (30% of the total secondary population) with another 3,104 in their separate preparatory departments for ages 4–11. Approximately 849 secondary pupils are boarders.

80% of all independently-educated pupils in the UK attend one of the 1,374 preparatory and secondary schools in membership of one or more of the 7 independent school organisations belonging to an umbrella body, the Independent Schools Joint Council (ISJC), for which see section 4 below. This group consists of boys' and girls' and more recently an increasing number of coeducational 'Public' Schools and Preparatory Schools. It provides day and boarding education organised in its own traditional pattern (pre-paratory 5–8, preparatory 8–11 or 13, secondary 11–18) which is not paralleled in the state system, though there is a fair amount of transfer from it, especially at age 11 and some movement in the other direction, often at the beginning of the Sixth Form stage, when Sixth Form Colleges offer a free alternative to two more years of fees, a wider range of courses than the smaller independent schools can offer and a less organised kind of life. It recruited some 8,048 new entrants from overseas in 1990/91, 5,655 being of foreign nationality.

These day and boarding schools, though by no means all confessional foundations, include a number of very distinguished Catholic schools; and in the larger Anglican and Protestant group some schools are highly religious in purpose while others lay less stress on worship and belief than on a broadly based Christian education. In terms of selectivity of entry, which is normally by examination and interview, some cater especially for the very able but between them they offer quite a wide range of choice to match the abilities and aspirations of their clients. They remain strong in the humanities, including the classics, modern languages, science and mathematics and in recent years have broadened their curricula increasingly to include music, the arts and technology. Sport and physical education have always been a forte and they mostly have a very wide range of extra-curricular activities from drama, musical performances, debating and hobbies to social service in the community and expeditions to foreign parts.

There are also many locally based primary and secondary schools of modest size and varying quality, some of which cater, as in most other countries, for those who have fallen behind in the State system or have learning difficulties. Others are kindergartens or nursery schools. Some of these are privately owned and run for profit. More than 700 have fewer than 100 pupils. The growing number of Steiner and Montessori schools, whose child-centred pedagogical principles attract an increasing number of middle-class parents, have their own organisations. The Association of Rudolf Steiner Schools in the UK and Ireland lists 25 schools in England, Scotland and Northern Ireland, all but 8 of which are at present nursery schools. There is a small number of 'free' schools, of which Summerhill is one and a growing number of Christian evangelical schools, mostly small in size.

3. Fees and costs

Fees in the main body of independent schools under the aegis of ISJC have increased very rapidly in the last decade in response to rising costs in a period of steep inflation affecting all kinds of expense and in particular that of salaries, which may represent 80% of total expenditure in a day school and 60% in a boarding school. They also reflect a more generous staffing ratio than in state schools which now stands at 1:11.1 overall and 1:12.9 if weighted for the extra demands of sixth forms.

Some other important differences between the British and continental patterns of education as they have evolved over the years have been referred to in the Introduction. In both the maintained and the independent schools there is a strong sense, inherited from the past, of the school as a community responsible for developing all aspects of the personality not only in the classroom but in a wide range of extra-curricular activities.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

The independent sector in the United Kingdom, with the exception of Northern Ireland, consists of entirely independent fee-paying schools at nursery, primary and secondary level. Until 1976 some 173 independent schools in England and Wales and in Scotland received financial aid called Direct Grant from central government under a contract which involved their admitting a proportion of pupils from state primary schools free and some others at fees calculated according to parental means and their accepting a measure of state control over expenditure. Except for about 50 Catholic schools, which opted to join the state system when a Labour Government abolished the grant, all these schools became fully fee-paying like the other independent schools. In Northern Ireland a system of grant-aided schools called 'voluntary schools' remains in force alongside the fully fee-paying schools.

Independent schools may be privately owned and operate for profit; but the majority, including the old and more recent foundations at secondary level, which are known paradoxically as the 'Public Schools' because the older ones extended their original free intake of poor scholars to the fee-paying public, are charitable foundations controlled by boards of trustees or governors responsible only to the Charity Commissioners in general terms. As educational charities such schools qualify for at least an 80% reduction in local rates and do not pay income tax or corporation tax, a considerable advantage for those with income from property or financial investments. They also benefit from the return of income tax paid by donors in addition to the actual gift made. All schools which are non-profit-making are exempt from the payment of VAT.

2. Statistics

In 1991 there were according to government statistics 2,342 independent schools in the United Kingdom with more than 600,000 pupils, 2,162 of them in England and Wales, 122 in Scotland and 58 in Northern Ireland. Those in England and Wales educate 7.5% of the total school population there, a steady increase in the past decade from 5.8% in 1979. In Scotland the equivalent figure is 3.4%. The proportion of coeducational to single-sex schools continues to grow and is now well over half the total, while boys' schools slightly outnumber girls' schools. In 1990 886 schools had some boarding pupils, compared with 979 in 1984 and the number of boarders as a proportion of all pupils was 19.4%. 1,462 schools had 43,400 pupils under 5, the starting age for compulsory education. Just over a half of all pupils attending independent schools were located in the South East of England, just over 12% in the South West and nearly 10% in the North West.

The independent schools in England and Wales provide 8.5% of all secondary places and, more remarkably, educate 20% of all pupils in the Sixth Form stage (roughly aged 16–18) since many still leave the state system at 16. As a result about 25% of students in higher education come from these schools and almost 50% of students at Oxford and Cambridge, all selected by ability and on examination performance.

The 122 independent schools in Scotland are mostly concentrated round Edinburgh and Glasgow. 75 of them are in membership of the Scottish Council of Independent Schools. 81 of them are coeducational day or boarding schools. The total number of pupils in 1990 was 33,071 of whom approximately 25% were boarders.

At secondary level they now range from £6,000 to £10,000 per annum for boarding schools and from £3,000 to £6,000 for day schools. Capital costs are met mainly from capital or, more frequently, from money subscribed by former pupils, parents, friends and industry in response to appeals. In 1990 as in 1989 schools spent £257 million on new buildings and equipment.

Some parents receive partial or full assistance with fees from public funds. These include diplomats and members of the Armed Services on duty overseas and some local authorities sponsor children from disrupted homes. Nearly 28,000 children a year benefit from the Government Assisted Places Scheme which aims to give help with fees graded according to parental means and offers free education at the bottom of the scale to pupils who obtain competitive places in 295 approved independent schools in England and Wales. A similar scheme covers pupils in Scotland. At least a further 70,000 benefit from scholarships offered by schools in competitive examination or from bursary funds designed to help those who fall on hard times. Altogether the families of about one child in five are therefore getting some help with fees.

Parents in the UK are able to reduce the cost of fees and spread it over a period of years through schemes offered by insurance agencies of a kind not found in other countries. On the other hand the payment of fees does not bring any tax advantage or remove the requirement to pay for state education through the tax system.

It was estimated that in 1991 the independent sector reduced government expenditure on education by at least £900 million without taking into account capital expenditure.

4. Coordination: ISJC and the Scottish Council of Independent Schools

Over the last decade the various Associations of Governors, Headmasters and Headmistresses and the Bursars Association to which the major schools belong have come together to form an umbrella body, the Independent Schools Joint Council to provide central services and act as their representative and negotiator with government. Alongside a small Secretariat under the Secretary General the Independent Schools Information Service, ISIS, is responsible for publicity and the circulation of information of all kinds to schools, including the publication of studies and research projects, and for the management of the Independent Schools Association for parents and other well-wishers. ISJC is funded mainly by subscriptions from its member associations. These are:

The Governing Bodies Association (GBA)
The Governing Bodies of Girls' Schools Association (GBGSA)
The Girls' School Association (GSA)
The Headmasters' Conference (HMC)
The Incorporated Association of Preparatory Schools (IAPS)
The Society of Headmasters of Independent Schools (SHMIS)
The Independent Schools Bursars Association (ISBA)
The Independent Schools Association Incorporated (ISAI)

Schools may belong to more than one association for different aspects of their work. This is especially true for the four oldest associations, GBA, GBGSA, HMC and GSA.

The Scottish Council of Independent Schools includes 'public' schools also in membership of associations of ISJC as well as other Scottish independent schools and is represented at meetings of ISJC.

5. Recruitment and social balance

While it is clear that in comparison with other European countries British independent schools are more elitist by reason both of cost and selection by ability, the sector

as a whole caters for a wider range of social backgrounds than might be expected and a survey by ISIS in 1989 showed that 41% of their pupils' parents had not been educated at independent schools and that 37% were not members of a profession or managers in industry and commerce. According to a survey covering the years 1940–1980 (*Origins and destinations, Halsey, Heath and Ridge, Oxford University Press*) the proportion of social classes 1 and 2, which made up 13.7% of the total population, ranged from 66% in boys' public schools to 47% in the rest. For classes 3, 4 and 5 (clerical, small traders, etc.), the range was from 27% to 41% and for classes 6, 7 and 8 (manual workers, who make up 55% of the total population) from 6% to 11%. The high proportion of parents from the professional and managerial classes is, of course, partly to be explained by the cost involved but also because such parents tend to value the education offered and make sacrifices accordingly. Wealth is no longer the preserve of these groups and there is evidence that small farmers and owners of small businesses and shops as well as those in middle management are increasingly able and willing to pay for independent education at a time when the maintained system is in disarray. While it is true that only 6% of pupils who qualify for Assisted Places under the government scheme come from the very poorest families, 31% of the total places were awarded as full remission of fees to children from families earning gross income of less than £7,584 a year and 60% to those earning less than £12,000. Many of these are from one-parent families and the unemployed.

Admission to the ISJC group of secondary independent schools at 11+ or 13+ is normally by examination set by a Common Entrance Board appointed by the Associations of Heads. The standard set for admission varies from school to school from being very selective by attainment to the use of a qualifying standard within which places are allotted by date order of application. Children are sometimes entered at birth and often several years in advance of entry age at the more famous schools. The range of ability within a school may be as high as to include only the top 4-5% of the ability range or extend more broadly to 40% or more according to the school's popularity and its educational objectives.

Entry to Steiner and Montessori schools and to 'free' and evangelical Christian schools is mainly a matter of parental preference for their educational principles.

Because the independent sector is largely autonomous and the maintained system highly decentralised (despite the recent introduction of the National Curriculum for maintained schools) traditional independent schools have been little affected by educational reform based on 'comprehensive' ideals. Nevertheless they have contributed greatly to and profited from innovation in teaching methods especially in the natural sciences, mathematics and technical studies, and DT (Design and Technology) now figures large in the curriculum.

6. **Politics and the future**

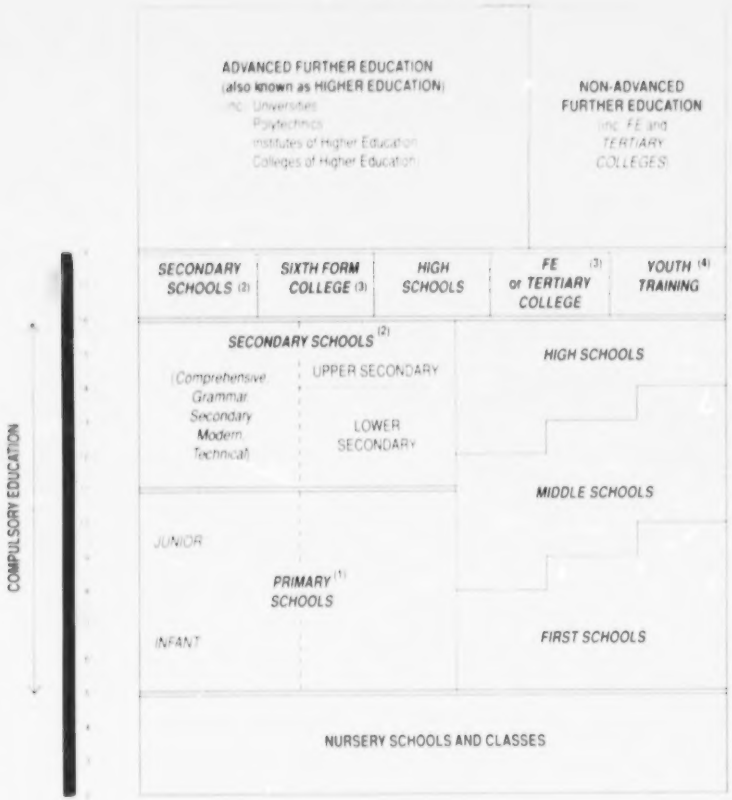
While the independent sector has continued to grow in size in the last decade it still faces the declared though now less root and branch hostility of the Labour Party and a somewhat reluctant respect from the Liberal Democrats. The Labour Party opposes both independent education and private health services as being privileged, élitist and socially divisive. While abandoning a policy of total abolition, its manifesto includes establishing a fully comprehensive national system, to which independent schools are an obstacle, ending charitable status for all but a few schools, phasing out the Assisted Places Scheme and enforcing the National Curriculum on all independent schools. The Liberal Democrats respect the value of freedom to choose implicit in

the Declarations of Human Rights and the educational standards of the independent schools but like Labour would abolish the Assisted Places Scheme, prune the benefits of charitable status and enforce the National Curriculum—the last of which would not in fact be a hardship, since it follows the general curriculum patterns of the independent sector. There is little difference between the action proposed by the two parties but opinion polls show that many of their supporters belong to the majority in the UK and in all other European countries which recognizes the importance of parental choice and variety in education. Both policies appear to run counter to the directive of the European Commission of 1984 on freedom of choice and variety in education and the avoidance of social discrimination by the subsidisation of independent schools (for which see Introduction p.3) and to the Declarations of Human Rights.

The Conservative Party, many of whose supporters strongly favour variety and freedom of choice, the competition offered by a mixed economy in education and the kind of opportunity for advancement the independent schools provide, is committed to their preservation and has given them modest aid in broadening their intake through the Assisted Places Scheme and by restoring to local authorities the right to take up and pay for places. It has been reluctant to go further in financial support.

The schools, while anxious to remain outside politics, would greatly welcome more effective help in broadening their social range of recruitment without undue loss of autonomy, something they have tried to obtain from governments since 1944. Their best hope must be that a future British Government will accept what is now established in Community policy and written into the Constitutions of most European States, for example in Article 7 of the German Constitution, namely that independent schools can only be freed of the charge of divisiveness and offer something like real equality of opportunity by proper support either to parents or schools from public funds—a price well worth paying to preserve the variety of educational experience which stems from the ability to choose between different educational patterns and which ensures independence of thought and belief in the adult democracy. Only in this way can the independent sector be perceived as an integral part of the national system of education.

ENGLAND AND WALES



1. Two tier (*primary* and *secondary schools*) and three tier (*first, middle* and *high schools*) systems exist side by side according to the provision within each individual *LEA (local education authority)*.

2. 90% of secondary pupils attend non-selective *comprehensive schools* covering the 11 to 16 or 11 to 18 age group. Most other children attend *grammar schools* for the 11 to 18 age group or *secondary modern schools* for the 11 to 16 age group. A few *LEAs* still maintain *technical schools*.

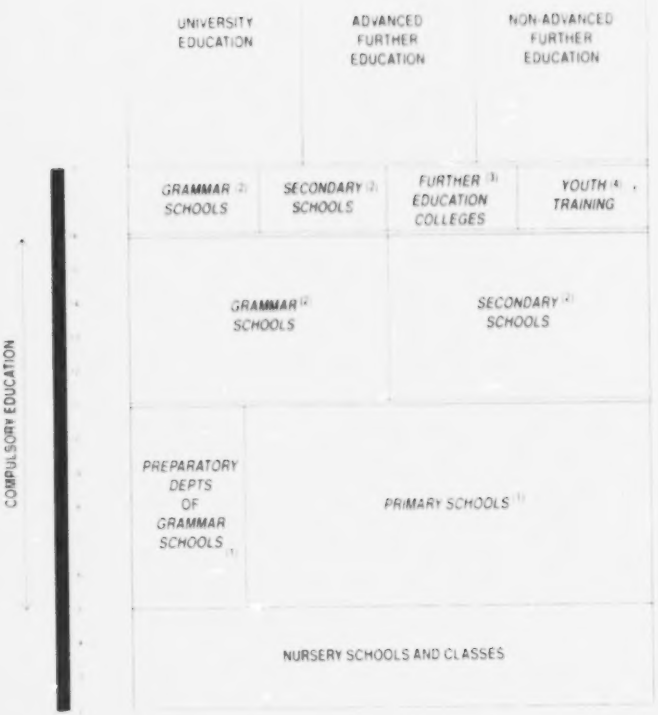
3. Classes for pupils over 16 are known as the *Sixth Form*. 11 to 16 schools are combined with *Sixth Form* or *Tertiary Colleges* for pupils over 16. Pupils may also transfer to a *Further Education College*. The *Sixth Form College* caters exclusively for those aged 16 to 19 and is subject to *Schools Regulations*. The *Tertiary College* shares characteristics of both the *Sixth Form* and of the *Further Education College*, and is subject to *Further Education Regulations*. All three offer a range of academic and vocational courses.

4. *Youth Training* is delivered through contracts with independent training providers (often private employers). It lasts two years, and is organised in 'units of competence'.

[illegible] is the level/type of education

[illegible] alternative beginning or end of level/type of education

NORTHERN IRELAND

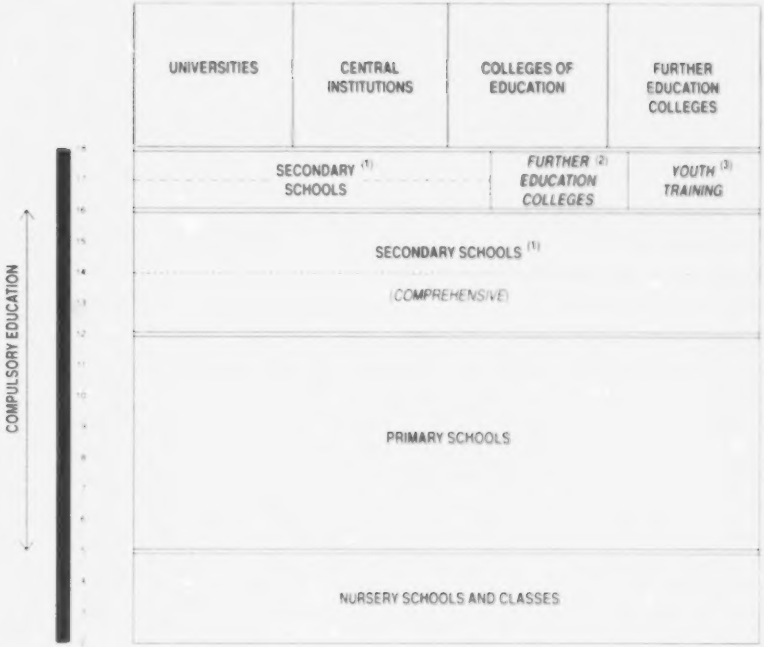


1. The majority of children up to 11-12 are educated in primary schools; some are educated in the preparatory departments of grammar schools. The latter charge fees.
2. Secondary education is at present selective. On the basis of tests, pupils go to either grammar schools or secondary schools, both provide a similar range of courses; grammar schools for the 11 to 18 year olds, secondary schools for the 11 to 16 year olds (some secondary schools offer post 16 opportunities). The selective system will be phased out under the Education Reform (Northern Ireland) Order 1989.
3. Further education colleges provide a range of academic and vocational courses for persons over compulsory school age.
4. Youth Training is provided by Training Centres, Colleges of FE, Workshops and FE Colleges. It lasts 2 years.

A route of the normal type of education

Alternative beginning or exit at various stages of education

SCOTLAND



1. 98% of Scottish education authority secondary schools are comprehensive schools offering all types of courses to pupils of all abilities. They provide 6 years of education (4 years of compulsory and 2 years of optional secondary education). Pupils may leave at 16. Examinations usually taken at age 17 provide access to tertiary education.

2. Further education colleges offer courses in academic and vocational subjects from craft to degree level. They accept pupils currently attending secondary schools for some courses. FE colleges also provide courses for the 'off the job' component of the Youth Training scheme.

3. Youth Training is delivered through contracts with various training providers (often private employers) of basis two years, and is organised on a unit of competence.

Division in the exercise of education

alternative beginning or end of one type of education

Austria

The national background

Austria, like Switzerland, is a land-locked, largely mountainous country whose frontiers are shared with seven neighbours and is a nodal point for international traffic by air, rail, road and above all by the River Danube. It was proclaimed a Republic in 1945 and its status finally regulated by treaty in 1955, when it also declared its permanent neutrality as a Federal Republic. The educational system has much in common with that of Germany, is controlled by the Federal Ministry of Education and Arts under a complicated and all-embracing legal code and is financed partly by federal and partly by provincial budgets. It is highly selective at all stages. Compulsory education is from 6 to 15+ with the option of transfer from the *Volkschule* to one of a number of types of gymnasium or 'grammar school' at 10+ or continued education to four years in a *Hauptschule*, followed by a single pre-vocational year, *(Polytechnischer Lehrgang)*. There is then a choice of full and part-time technical and vocation courses from 15+ to 19+. Courses in gymnasia are in two cycles, the first of which, from 10+ to 14+, has been reorganised to bring what were formerly three separate types of gymnasium course based on either classics, modern languages or the sciences under a single roof as an *Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule*. The second cycle offers a choice of more specialised tracks from 14+ to 18+. Curricula, the allocation of subject times and the timetable are prescribed by the Ministry but the choice of teaching methods and of the textbooks prescribed by the Ministry is now left to schools and teachers. Examinations are set and evaluated by teachers. Admission to University is by an equivalent of the German *abitur* known as the *Matura*.

The full and highly complicated range of alternative choices is found only in the larger towns and cities, where the majority now attend at least the first gymnasium cycle rather than the *Hauptschule*. According to recent reports there is much criticism of the general standards achieved in school and there is pressure for a complete revision of the rigid and overcrowded national curriculum and more autonomy for schools, policies to which the present Minister, Rudolf Scholten, is favourable.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. **Constitutional safeguards and legal controls**

Legal control of education in Austria is shared between the national and the Länder governments. The European Declarations of Human Rights have been incorporated in Austrian law but there is no legal recourse to the relevant United Nations Pacts. The State has clear and complete constitutional control of the education system but the constitution of 1867 and subsequent legislation confirm the right of suitably qualified persons to establish schools provided they fulfil the requirements of the public system and give the Church responsibility for religious education. A concordat with the Vatican of 1962 authorised the subsidised provision of teachers which Church schools of all denominations now enjoy so long as they conform to state norms. Subsequently some recognition and support have been extended to a small number of other types of independent schools.

The majority of 'private' schools are confessional schools under Catholic control by the hierarchy or the religous orders. They include Kindergarten classes run by the Church or by factories and private individuals. According to an official list of private

schools in Austria there are 13 gymnasia in Vienna, almost half for girls, and 19 in provincial centres elsewhere, together with 27 private *Hauptschule* or secondary modern schools. Denominational schools receive financial aid from the Federal Government, mainly, as already mentioned, by the provision of teachers who are state-employed and paid but sometimes also by a small cash subsidy. They may also benefit from financial aid from Church sources, many of them being run by Orders. Fees vary accordingly but on average run from 1,000 to 1,500 Schillings per month. The schools have little autonomy in terms of curriculum or pedagogical theory, being bound to conform to state patterns, but benefit from the prestige of their foundations and their reputation.

There are also Jewish schools and 7 Steiner schools belonging the the *Bund freier Waldorfschulen*, five of which continue education beyond kindergaften to age 11 or 15. Two are in Vienna and the rest in cities like Salzburg and Linz. The Friedrich Eymann-Waldorfschule in Vienna is a separate institution for formal education. They receive a small subsidy amounting to about 10% of costs, which compares unfavourably with their neighbours in Germany. There are also three or four 'alternative' schools, some of which specialise in remedial work.

2. **The status and future of the independent sector**

The pattern of all-embracing educational control of education by Federal and Länder governments in Austria at present lacks the flexibility which has fostered the growth of a strong and varied independent sector in its neighbour, Germany — something which is reflected in the less generous help given to Steiner and similar schools. In both countries the national patterns of curriculum and organisation remain paramount and allow only somewhat reluctant rights of experiment and variation of norms. Further development of the independent sector will clearly depend on, firstly, the closer integration in Europe which will result if Austria achieves membership of the European Community and, secondly, the scope and nature of whatever proposals are forthcoming for the reform of education generally.

Finland

The national background

While it has much in common with its Scandinavian neighbours — and especially with Sweden — not only geographically but in political and social patterns of life, Finland's history and development and above all its language, which has Estonian and more distantly Hungarian affiliations, set it apart from the main stream. Both history and climate have helped to shape an unusually tough, resilient and able society which has survived and even in a sense triumphed over Russian attempts at total annexation. Finnish Protestantism, dating from the 16th century and with its Finnish version of the Bible, remains a key element in social consciousness and a potent influence in personal life.

The Finnish education system was firmly reorganised in 1968 on the Swedish comprehensive pattern. Compulsory education lasts for nine years. A nine- or ten-year comprehensive school from 7 to 16 years caters for primary and junior secondary stages, followed at upper secondary level by a 3-year general academic or general gymnasium course from 17-19 attended by roughly half the age group or by a variety of vocational courses lasting from 2-5 years. A matriculation examination at 19+ admits some 47% of leavers to higher education, the remainder going on to vocational training or entering employment. Schools have their own governing bodies with elected representatives of teachers, school personnel, parents or guardians and older students. Comprehensive schools are administered by a municipal education office, subject to overall control by the Ministry of Education and its regional offices. Ultimate authority for policy rests with Parliament. The curricula and organisation of upper secondary schools are laid down by the National Board of General Education but municipalities are free to draw up their own curricula subject to these controls.

In February 1991 new legislation affecting primary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools largely decentralised what had been until then a monolithic system. Municipal schools now enjoy freedom to vary their methods and to a lesser extent the content of central and local syllabuses and the same freedom of course extends to the independent sector.

While academic standards are higher at upper secondary level, especially in languages, mathematics and the sciences, the official objectives stress not academic attainment so much as social purpose — 'to foster students into becoming harmonious, physically fit, independent, autonomous, creative and peace-loving individuals and members of society' — and stress the importance of cooperation and support from home.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. Control and organisation

Freedom of parental choice and variety in education are firmly established in the Constitution, as is the right of home-schooling, and Finland has signed the various international declarations of human rights which have now been incorporated into Finnish law. Until the 1970s the state was slow to found its own schools and independent schools, which multiplied with the help of state subsidies, were the main source of education. The legislation of 1968 in favour of comprehensives decentralised control to municipal authorities, which proceeded to take over the majority of the independent schools. The result was that by 1983 their number had dropped from

364 to 40. They now number only about 30, most of them with an upper-secondary (gymnasium) department attached. A separate law of 1977 authorised subsidies for three Steiner schools, though some 10 more were to be found throughout the country, most of them very small. Separate legislation also authorises the International School of Helsinki, the English and German schools and twelve Finnish schools overseas. There is also a single Jewish school in Helsinki and a Seventh Day Adventist boarding school.

Subsidised schools.
Subsidised schools are under contract with municipal authorities. They may not charge fees but may receive donations to finance capital projects. They are funded partly from municipal and partly from state funds and there are two elements in the system of subsidies: the first is for running costs, which must not exceed the cost per pupil in state schools and the second is for salaries which are fully funded. Salaries are settled by bargaining at national level but, since they account only for about 55% of the total budget, good administration can give some scope for special projects and experiment. Any surplus in the year's working is at the school's disposal but a deficit must be made up by fund-raising or in some other way. Schools appoint their own school boards, which in turn appoint staff, control finance and set out the general aims and outlines for the curriculum and extra-curricular activities. For most independent schools catchment areas are strictly limited by negotiation with the municipality concerned.

More recently new legislation in 1985 and 1991 has given more scope for local initiative in education and has increased the administrative autonomy of independent schools and their freedom to experiment. The Ministry of Education in February, 1991 amended the law to sanction the establishment of new so-called 'alternative schools' if their new programmes are based on an acknowledged international pedagogical idea and the local municipality is prepared to sign an agreement of support.

2. **The Finnish Association of Private Schools.**
The Association was founded in 1935 and is open to independent schools of all kinds. It numbers some 30 members, many of them among the 'top' schools. Though the majority are old 'grammar schools' they include an Adventist school, the Jewish school and four Steiner schools, more of which will join in the near future. The Association is active in negotiation with the authorities and an accepted partner in educational policy making.

3. **Statistics**

Pupils:
The total school population at primary and lower-secondary levels (i.e. in comprehensive schools) is 566,941. Upper secondary pupils number 101,247. Roughly 3.5% of comprehensive pupils attend independent schools and of the 50% of their age-group who attend gymnasia 5% are in the independent sector.

Schools:
Schools in membership of the Finnish Association of Private Schools are organised as follows:

combined primary, secondary and upper secondary grades	9
primary and secondary grades only	3
secondary only	2

secondary and upper secondary	12
upper secondary only	7
Total of member schools	**33**

Cost per pupil in 1990 in state and independent schools:

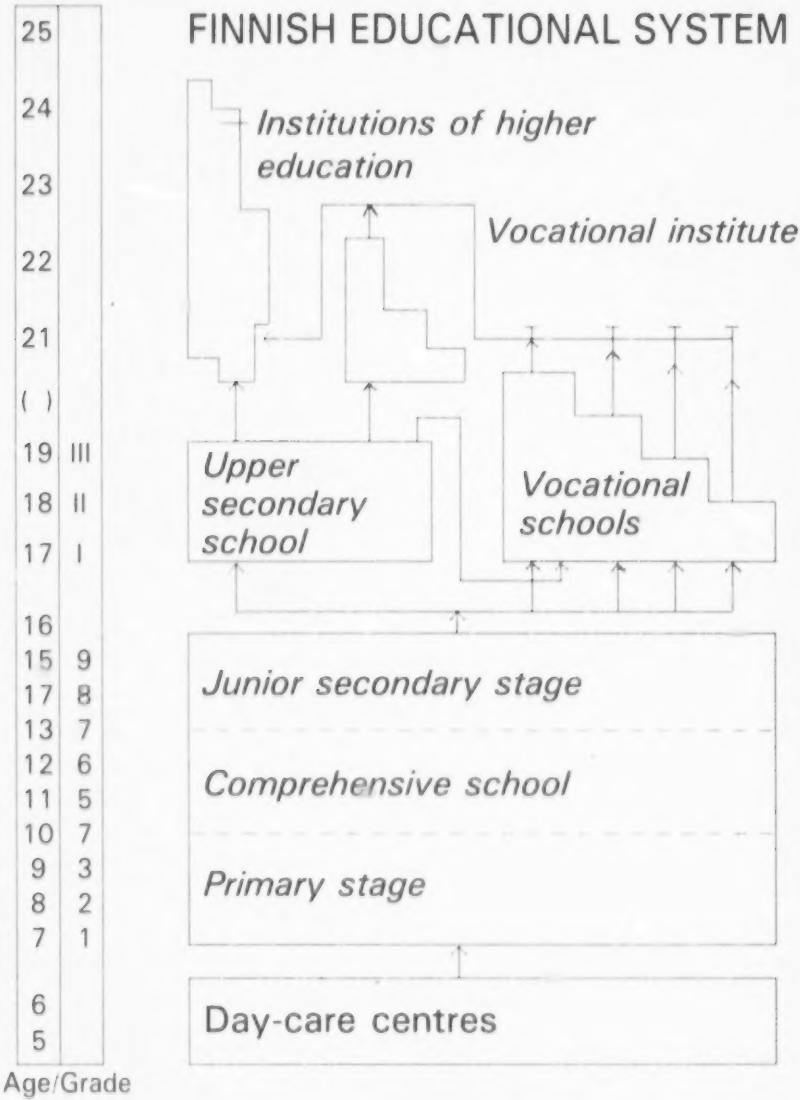
Comprehensives	FM 21,484
Upper-secondary schools	FM 20,072
Vocational	FM 23,000 to 92,000

4. The role and future of independent schools

After two decades of struggle to maintain their status and standards in the face of hostility from municipal authorities, Finnish independent schools which to some extent follow the state patterns and receive subsidy are now accepted and recognised both at central and local levels as a small but efficient sector of the national provision for education which is notable for better than average results both academically and pastorally. Like the state system it is open to all regardless of parental income and its pupils are in cross-section very similar to those attending state schools, but parents are in a sense a self-selecting élite who value the opportunities they see in the independent sector. Many supporters of independence argue that the pursuit of equality by legislation has resulted in mediocrity at the expense of genuine choice, especially on grounds of faith, variety and excellence, and that much of the creative power of the independent school has been exhausted by a frustrating struggle for survival. The restriction of variety which results from control is in Finland to some extent mitigated by the regulations governing freedom of religious education in the state system. These appear to satisfy the needs of professed Protestant families and those belonging to the Greek Orthodox Church who in other countries, with the Catholics, would look to separate confessional schools for their children's education. On the other hand the schools' virtually complete dependence on state funding still sets a hugh premium on innovation and experiment. The recent legislation is felt by the schools to have opened the way to much more independence in educational policy and methods and to give them, even more than the state schools, a new sense of freedom. They look forward to the future with renewed vigour.

Despite the limitations imposed by the conditions of subsidy, independent schools are much sought after by reason of good community spirit, the quality of teaching staff and a high level of academic attainment. Compared with Norway and Denmark the sector is still less well-placed to offer genuine variety of choice of different educational and pedagogical philosophies because of the — until this year — almost total restriction of subsidy to schools which are willing to conform to state patterns and norms — a restriction which stemmed ultimately from a strong sense of national unity and orderliness which has helped Finland to withstand its Russian neighbours so successfully.

FINNISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM



Norway

The national background

Norway is a large country with a very distinctive geographical structure — over 60% of it is above the timberline — and a small and very scattered population. These factors have had a strong influence on the development of Norwegian life and politics. Another important influence is the evangelical tradition of the Lutheran Protestant Church which the Norwegian Constitution of 1814 names as the official religion of the State, while guaranteeing freedom of worship. It is worth noting that the ministry responsible for education is named the Ministry of Church and Education.

Norway and Sweden were linked by the Swedish-Norwegian Union from 1814 to 1905 and, like other Scandinavian countries, Norway has a long tradition of independent education both at school level and for adults. The first primary schools date back to the eighteenth century and were followed by increasing numbers of independent *grunnskoler* until the 1890s when state provision in the context of an increasingly socialist-minded society reversed the trend, so that by the end of the second world war their numbers were much reduced. As in Sweden, post-war Labour governments have promoted a 'public democratic system' and opposed the financial support earlier given to independents, while Conservatives favour them as the best way of promoting variety and argue that without subsidy they will increase social differences. A comprehensive system for all from 7-16 was introduced by the Act Concerning the Basic School of 1968 and a supplementary Act of 1975.

As in other Scandinavian countries, compulsory education begins at 7 (6+) in the first of two stages of the *grunnskole*, a common course from 7-13, leading on to the second 'youth' stage from 14-16 which includes some options for different abilities. It is financed by local authorities with the help of grants from central government.

The many varieties of Upper Secondary Education — *Videregående skole* — from 16-19, which included general, vocational, agricultural and other specialised institutions, were reformed under a law of 1974 into a second comprehensive system with three branches — general education for the academically bright, two-year foundation courses with a smaller academic content and vocational courses. Upper secondary schools are controlled by the Ministry with the help of the Council for Upper Secondary Education and managed mainly by the County authorities through school boards. As at the earlier stage education is free. Operating expenses are the responsibility of county municipalities with the help of equalising grants from Government. Virtually all schools are co-educational.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. Legal status, controls and subsidies

Independent schools must comply with laws and regulations which apply to state schools of a corresponding type and are coeducational.

State grants for independent schools have a long history in Norway and, despite government policies in favour of state schools, some 117 were receiving grants in 1969. These were voted by the National Assembly year by year. On March 6th in the following year the Government passed a law concerning subsidies, whose effects were later reviewed in a White Paper (nr 19, 1977/8). According to this law, eligibility for grant depends on schools fulfilling one or more of three requirements — that they

carry out pedagogical experiments, that they have been established for religious or ethical reasons or that they fill a gap in state provision.

By 1976 the number of aided schools had risen to 152 but by 1984 it had decreased to 147 schools which educated no more than 11,000 pupils, something over 1% of the school population. In 1987 they totalled 151. The larger number of them are commercial schools. About 40% of the schools are owned by religious organisations, some by joint-stock companies and a few by individuals. 45% of their pupils take courses not found in state schools. Up till 1986 the schools received 65% of their expenses from public funds, 52% from the government and 13% from local authorities.

The White Paper of 1977 had proposed amendments to the Act of 1970 designed to strengthen the economic position of private schools, including upper secondary schools which had no equivalents in the public system. The new Act of 1986 which resulted increased the rate of subsidy for upper secondary schools equivalent to those in the state system to 85% and for those which are not equivalent to 75%. At the same time new regulations for the democratisation of Governing Bodies opened membership to parents and employees and at upper secondary level to pupils, who have the right to express their views but not to vote. The new law was drafted in consultation with the School Associations and an office for independent schools established in the Ministry. The Schools were consulted in the drafting of the new law. A special dispensation provided continued aid for vocational schools *(landbrugsfagskoler)* and transferred them to higher education. They are now once again upper secondary schools under the Ministry of Education. Schools eligible for subsidy do not include the Folk High Schools, which, as in Denmark, are separately organised and controlled.

2. **Coordination**

There are three main independent school associations. The Norske Privatskolers Landsforbund has 51 member schools from primary to upper secondary level and has headquarters in Oslo. A second association, the Kristne Friskolers Forbund (KFF) was created in 1988 for the growing number of evangelical Christian schools, which now number 92. 24 Steiner schools at nursery and primary level and 8 Steiner schools at upper secondary level belong to the Steiner association; and there is a small number of Montessori schools.

3. **Statistics**

According to figures in the national budget for 1990 the numbers of schools of different types and of their pupils were as follows:

Grunnskoler in Norway	49 with	5,636 pupils
Grunnskoler overseas	25 with	647 pupils
Special *grunnskoler*	5 with	75 pupils
Parallel upper secondary with 85% grant	38 with	6,054 pupils
Non-parallel up. sec. with 75% grant	45 with	2,098 pupils
Special upper secondary schools	9 with	305 pupils
Sjoapirantskoler (sea-schools)	3 with	185 pupils
Bedriftsskoler (for commerce)	2 with	60 pupils
Secondary schools overseas	33 with	3,131 pupils
Totals	**151**	**12,900**

Typical fees range from N.kr 3,200 to 20,000 per annum, with the Christian schools in the lower ranges.

4. Status and future of the independent sector

Norway has been described by sociologists as an extreme version of 'social corporatism' in which the state coacts with corporate and interest groups in the formation of policy as opposed to fostering open competition between interest groups. As in other Scandinavian countries, popular support for freedom of choice by the citizen in all aspects of life including religion ensures the unchallenged existence of an independent sector offering considerable variety of educational aims and methods at a comparatively modest cost to parents. There is little evidence that alumni have a privileged status in later life. On the debit side lower subsidies to schools which do not conform to the state pattern make them more expensive and freedom to choose is accordingly limited. Nevertheless rapid growth of the group of Christian schools in the last decade, which matches that of similar schools in North America, the Antipodes and to a lesser extent in other European countries, is noteworthy. These schools tend to lay more emphasis on a strictly Christian ethos than on normal academic programmes, while Steiner and Montessori schools appeal for their pedagogical methods and philosophy.

Independent schools are more warmly supported by the Conservatives than by the Socialists but can look forward to a secure future within the inevitable restrictions of the system. In terms of general education most of them differ little from their state equivalents, though they benefit from the cooperation of teachers, parents and pupils sharing a sense of community. The greatest threat is, perhaps, as in other Scandinavian countries from the ever-growing cost of maintaining an almost intolerably expensive pattern of social welfare service financed from general taxation in the context of a declining economy. It is unlikely that educational budgets, like those of other services such as medicine, will keep pace with the increasingly expensive cost of salaries, buildings and equipment over and above the effects of sharply rising inflation, at any rate in the short term.

Sweden

The national background

Sweden is the third biggest country in Western Europe and like Norway is sparsely populated with only 19 inhabitants to the square kilometre overall, despite densely populated areas around the three main cities, Stockholm, Gothenburg and Malmö. Like Norway, too, it has a Lutheran State Church to which most citizens belong, though in recent years there has been a marked increase, due to immigration, in Catholic, Greek Orthodox and Muslim adherents. The tradition of democratic socialism which is common to other Scandinavian countries has been more firmly and uncompromisingly incorporated in government and expressed in the mechanisms of a bureaucratic and all-embracing welfare state. Its apparatus includes a rigorously comprehensive system of education at all three levels which has been a strong influence in other lands. The Social Democratic Party held more or less uninterrupted power between 1932 and 1976 and subsequent coalitions have maintained the social and educational status quo until the elections of September 1991 brought a real change in the balance of political power. It is too early to say how radically Swedish society will change as a result, but in education the new government has already announced its intentions to extend state subsidies more widely to pupils in independent schools and to begin compulsory education at 6 years of age instead of 7.

The system of primary and secondary education the new government has inherited is coeducational and comprehensive both in the compulsory 9-year school from 7-16 (primary and lower secondary levels) and in the upper secondary school which traditionally has offered a variety of disciplines of different lengths—two-year vocational courses, varied three-year academic courses leading mainly to university and a four-year course qualifying for higher technical studies in engineering and some 100 specialised courses of varying length. More than 95% of pupils who complete the compulsory course at 16 apply for admission and 35% take the academic courses offered. This elaborate system is in process of rationalisation as a result of which all courses will be for three-years and there will be no more than two tracks for academic students divided between arts and science subjects. Before compulsory school all children are entitled to at least one year of pre-school education which is the responsibility not of the Ministry of Education but of the public child-care authorities and the Ministry of Social Welfare.

Education policy is determined by Parliament and curricula at government level. Implementation is the task of the National Board of Education (now rechristened *Skolverket* and with changed responsibilities), but much power has been decentralised to the (political) local education committees of the municipalities and to school staffs without the intervention of school councils or governing bodies. Running costs are shared equally between state and municipality, fees are not permitted in state schools and school meals, medical care and transport are free in the compulsory stages and often later on. There are no examinations at either level but there are compulsory leaving certificates at both, based on continuous evaluation and marks, with achievement tests in some subjects for upper secondary pupils.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. Controls and subsidies

The Education Act of 1962, while giving little encouragement to independent schools,

made it possible for private persons or groups to provide for their children's education but required the municipal authorities to ensure that the requirement for nine years of compulsory education was respected. Until the change of government in autumn 1991, limited subsidies from state and municipal funds were available to a very small number of schools for the compulsory nine years of education. They were administered by local education authorities but, apart from a number of private day nurseries and nursery schools which do not form part of the school system, independent schools have in the past thirty years accounted for less than 2% at most of the total educational provision and less than 1% in schools at primary and lower secondary level. There were also two subsidised boarding schools for children whose parents mostly lived aboard.

A third and growing group, including the 32 Steiner schools and some evangelical Christian schools, received direct state subsidy. The schools in this group could, under Swedish Educational Law, only be approved for grant by the National Board of Education. The criteria for approval were, in summary, firstly that the school must aim at providing an education which essentially corresponds with that of the common school, both in terms of learning and of the general development of its pupils, and secondly must embrace the general value and rules for the development of Swedish society as laid down for the common school.

Tertiary education is entirely in the public domain with the exception of the Stockholm School of Economics, but of the folk high schools for adult students on the Danish pattern about half are state supported under the direction of religious, ideological or trades union sponsorship.

2. **Patterns of Independent Schools and changes in subsidisation.**

Under the new regime announced on Decemnber 6th, 1991, grants to independent schools require the approval of the government and the Ministry. The National Board published early in December the details of a new and more liberal pattern of grants for 1991/2 and proposals for new legislation which the Coalition Government will put to Parliament in the spring of 1992, when they may well be further amended. The details of the new legislation and its likely impact on the independent sector must await further clarification. Under these regulations the following independent schools catering for the nine-year compulsory stages will be entitled to state grants of SwK13,000 per pupil for the school year 1991/2 and in 1992/3 will be entitled to the same funding as state schools managed by the local authorities.

The schools to receive grants are:

6 International schools.
22 Waldorf (Steiner) schools.
18 Confessional schools.
8 Montessori schools.
5 Other.

Grants will also go, under a different ordinance, to the two national boarding schools — *Sigtunaskolan Humaniska Lärverket* and *Grännaskolan* and to three other schools including the Göteborg Higher Coeducational School, originally a progressive experimental establishment.

3. **The future role and status of the independent sector.**

It will be clear from the previous section that until September 1991 independent schools in Sweden were fewer and less favoured than their equivalents in the Western European

country. Many of them preferred to maintain their freedom of action and refused all but the minimum subsidy. General standards of equipment, buildings and teacher ratios are as a result modest in comparison with other countries. There is now reason to hope that under the new régime the sector will receive more support both from government and the public at large, though it remains a controversial issue, since many people with long experience of education in Sweden are proud of its egalitarian tradition and fear an increase in social inequality if it is changed. Even before the election in September Parliament had decided that in future independent schools judged competent for the provision of compulsory schooling should receive the same funding as state schools, but would perhaps no longer be allowed to charge fees — a model which, as experience in the Netherlands has shown, is not conducive to experimentation and true variety. While it is far too early to predict how Swedish society and institutions will change and the political balance in government is far from certain, it seems likely that in education as in other aspects of community life Sweden will increasingly abandon its specially Swedish models in favour of assimilation to those of the Common Market which it aspires to join. Until now the independent sector has been isolated and fragmented and has lacked the means to influence public opinion by championing the causes of variety, freedom of parental choice and equality of opportunity. With the help of the European Council of National Associations of Independent Schools (ECNAIS), of which at least one group of schools now has associate membership, it will be better placed to establish its indentity and strengthen its links with the rest of Europe.

Switzerland

The national background

Switzerland is a confederation of 26 largely independent and self-governing cantons which are nevertheless bound together by a strong sense of national identity. Its Federal Constitution dates from 1848 and is still the main-spring of national life. Decision by consultation and referenda is a first principle both at federal and cantonal level. Its roughly 6.6 million people, of whom a million are permanently resident aliens, speak four national languages in the following proportions (1990 figures) — French 18%, German 65%, Italian 10% and Romanche 1% — each with a variety of internal dialects within the regions in which they predominate. Quadrilingualism is by no means uncommon , especially at federal level. Almost 44% of the population claim allegiance to the Protestant faith, first established by Zwingli in Zurich and Calvin in Geneva; 47.6%, mainly concentrated in central Switzerland, are Roman Catholics and about 8% are of other faiths or none. In economic terms the Swiss are a nation of largely salaried employees engaged in industry, crafts and trades and the provision of services, notably banking, insurance and tourism. Only 5.5% now work on such land as is cultivable. Switzerland's main source of its very considerable income is from foreign trade.

There is in reality no national pattern or system of education since legal responsibility rests with each of the 26 cantons and despite some recent attempts at co-ordination there are in fact 26 different laws of education and 26 separate systems. It is important to remember that until the creation of the Confederation in 1848 education in Switzerland, as in other countries, was largely in the hands of the churches. The strong liberal and radical influences in the new Confederation, which were anti-clerical in bias, used the constitution to establish the basis of a neutral, state-controlled system in opposition to the confessional schools, but left legislation on independent schools to the separate cantons. During the following years the educational system was strongly influenced by pioneers like Pestalozzi and Piaget and their colleagues in other lands.

a) **Federal responsibility**

Article 27 of the Federal Constitution of 1974 requires each canton to provide adequate primary education free of charge in public schools open to children of all faiths and ensuring entire freedom of thought and belief. Various sub-paragraphs provide for subsidies for educational research and other projects and authorise the federal authorities to give instructions about PE and sport and to legislate on vocational training, which accordingly is centrally controlled.

Article 49 declares that freedom of conscience and creed shall be inviolable and that parents have the right to give their child religious instruction until his or her 16th birthday.

An amended Article 27 which would give the federal authorities a greater share in the control of secondary and higher education has been much debated but finally turned down. All federal legislation about education stems from Article 27.

b) **The Cantons**

Each canton has its own, distinct laws on education. These show great diversity in detail and are the more confusing since primary education is often interpreted to mean

compulsory education from 6 to 15+, including what is normally termed 'lower secondary'. While the canton is responsible for the organisation, management and supervision of education in its territory these duties are mainly devolved to local and municipal authorities. Major changes in educational law must be submitted to referendum and involve much popular interest and discussion.

In recent years some greater coordination of the 26 systems has been achieved through the Conference of Directors of Education (DIP) and the legally binding Concordat on School-Coordination to which 20 cantons subscribed in 1974, committing themselves to a common policy on the duration of compulsory schooling, on arrangements for university education and on the school year. Nevertheless differences still exist over all these matters and problems of mobility and transfer are compounded by differences in mother tongue and tradition.

A rough indication of the main lines of organisation underlying cantonal differences will be found in the diagram on page 100. Though some innovations and reform in teaching methods and objectives have occurred in recent years the system is still in principle hierarchical and selective and lays great stress on vocational training and apprenticeship after the conclusion of compulsory education for those who do not go on to an academic or technical higher secondary course and higher education. Much teacher training still begins at 16.

Pre-primary education is from 3+ to 5+ in kindergartens or infant schools. Private schools charge fees and may receive subsidy. Montessori and Decroly methods predominate in French-speaking areas.

The primary stage normally lasts from four to six years but in many cantons continues alongside lower secondary to the end of compulsory education. Instruction is by non-specialist teachers.

Lower secondary education from 11, 12 or 13 to 15+ is semi-selective with three streams of varying types leading to academic or vocational training or providing basic education. Brighter pupils transfer to upper secondary at 13.

There are two main types of upper secondary education. The first, from 13+ or 15+ to 19+, is in a *gymnasium, collège or lycée* according to canton. It prepares for the five types of *maturité* which admit to HE and university courses. The examination is either school-based and recognised or is set by the federal commission. The second is provided in *Diplommittelschulen, écoles du degré diplôme*, which offer a two or three-year general education from 15+ to 17+ mainly for students going on to vocational training, for example as medical auxiliaries or infant teachers.

The majority of school leavers at 15+ opt either for an apprenticeship involving part-time study at a vocational school or for a full-time technical or vocational school which may be either public or private, both types being subsidised by the Confederation and by trade associations. These schools cover a vast range including arts and crafts, business and administration, public order, social services, etc. and lead to a diploma. More able students can go on to more advanced HE courses, including those of the *écoles techniques supérieures*.

At tertiary level there are seven cantonal universities with more in the planning stage, two federal institutes of technology and a number of special teahcer training institutions, some of which are private.

Teacher training differs from canton to canton. Pre-primary and primary teachers may begin training at 16 for five years or at 19 for three if they have a *maturité*. Lower secondary teachers attend a Teachers Training College and gain a diploma. Gymnasium teachers require a university degree or licence followed by two years of

supervised training and usually specialise in no more than two subjects. Teachers in state schools are civil servants.

THE INDEPENDENT SECTOR

1. Independent schools are of two kinds — those which offer an alternative to the state system at different levels and those which are designed primarily for foreigners and whose education programme is independent of the Swiss system. There is some overlap but only the first category figures in official statistics.

2. **Legal status**

There is nothing in the Federal Constitution about parental rights of choice and variety in the educational system, though Switzerland fully recognises the relevant clauses in the European and other international declarations of human rights. The status of independent schools is, however, recognised and determined by cantonal educational laws which differ considerably in attitude. Overall the official attitude is one of tolerance rather than active support. Details may be found in *'Articles de Lois concernant l'enseignement privé en Suisse selon les cantons (Genève, CESDOC viii/81).* In general the laws require official recognition and supervision of independent schools by the cantonal authority, adequate premises, qualified teachers and conformity with state programmes and examinations during the years of compulsory education. In many cantons there is provision for subsidy if, like *Ersatzschulen* in the Federal Republic of Germany, the school fulfils the function of a public school and supplements the public provision. The cantons of Graubünden and Zug use private schools as part of their official systems. In Basel private primary and lower primary schools must inform the Ministry about staff appointments and changes in curriculum. In Geneva Article 14 in the relevant cantonal law safeguards freedom of education for all and establishes an advisory commission on independent education.

3. **Statistics**

Schools other than those catering for international students and examinations number something less than 500. They are found at all levels and include vocational institutions some of which train teachers for primary schools. Out of a total population of 1,108,312 in 1989/90 73,871 (6.66%) attended aided and unaided independent schools. Table 1 below, which sets out their distribution at the four main levels of education shows clearly that they are of little significance at primary level, where free 'neutral' schools are the norm. At secondary level the comparative lack of state provision over the years and the special attention paid by the federal authorities to vocational training have helped to encourage independent provision and to widen parental choice. One result has been the foundation of many confessional boarding schools and schools dedicated to alternative educational philosophies like those of Steiner, Decroly and Montessori.

TABLE 1. School population in state and independent schools (1989/90).

Type	*Total*	*state*	*aided ind*	*unaided*	*%ind/state*
Pre-primary	136,845	128,801	908	7,136	5.88
Primary	394,061	383,399	1,147	9,515	2.70
Lower Secondary	273,221	266,118	3,450	13,621	6.35
Higher Secondary	304,185	266,118	17,346	20,721	14.58

The overall total percentage of independent school pupils is 6.43%.

NB. The figures for Higher Secondary include those attending vocational schools and teacher training institutions for primary teachers.

3. **The organisation and coordination of independent schools.**

Independent schools in Switzerland, as in many other countries, may be privately owned by individuals or groups, form private companies, be non-profit-making (with some tax advantages) or form a charitable institution *(Stiftung)*.

Most of the 351 independent schools of unaided type belong to one of four different organisations which in 1980 came together to form an umbrella organisation under the German title *Arbeitsgemeinschaft Schweizerischer Privatschulen* with an office in Lucerne. The four member associations are:

a) the *Verband Schweizerischer Privatschulen*, now over 90 years old, whose membership of about 200 includes most of the international schools.

b) the *Konferenz Katholischer Schulen und Erziehungsinstitutionen*, with 105 members.

c) the *Verband Freier Evangelischer Schulen der Schweiz* with 25 members.

d) the *Rudolf Steiner Schulen* with 33 members.

The ASP, in conjunction with the Swiss Tourist Office, publishes a full and explicit directory of some 270 private schools from all four associations throughout Switzerland, which contains details of courses, examinations, languages, etc. The list includes not only formal nursery , primary and secondary schools but also domestic science, secretarial and commercial colleges, language schools, institutions for training medical assistants and evening and holiday courses, as well as establishments specialising in foreign examinations. Many combine day and boarding pupils and are co-educational. Some are very large concerns, offering a wide variety of courses in all fields of education. The *Feusi Schulzentrum* with headquarters in Bern has out-stations in four other cities. In Bern it runs a primary and lower secondary school, a *gymnasium* offering additional courses for late starters and adults, a bilingual school, a technical school for Trade, Traffic and Tourism, a medical-technical centre and a school for training dental hygienists.

Details of these associations will be found in Appendix 1.

4. **Fees**

These range widely and are markedly lower when a subsidy is given by the canton. In 1990/91 a large gymnasium in Geneva catering for Swiss, American and British examinations charged SFr.33,000 for boarders and from SFr.10,720 to SSFr.13,710 for day pupils.

A private primary school charged from SFr.2,700 to 10,720. Charges in a Montessori primary school were SFr.5,300.

A Protestant primary and academic secondary school in Basel ranged from SFr.7,000 to 10,000 and a Catholic day and boarding primary and lower secondary school in Disentis charged SFr.9,000 for boarders and 3,000 for day pupils. Parents do not receive tax advantages but some cantons pay fees for pupils attending independent schools when no such public school exists in the area.

5. **The status and future of the independent sector**

Despite the fact that in some cantons independent schools are subsidised by cantonal

funds, the independent schools, like subsidised schools in Germany, educate under 7% of the school population. The causes lie partly in the strongly radical and liberal tendencies of Swiss democratic thinking, with its reliance on referenda and a marked inclination to anti-clericalism, and partly in the diversity of policy and approach caused by the lack of a federally established system of education. Even when the Federal Government is directly concerned, as for example when in spring 1990 it approved a large credit for the improvement of vocational training, the independent schools suspect discrimination in favour of the public sector.

Like their German neighbours and unlike British independent schools, they operate beyond the field of general academic education in a wide range of vocational and professional training; and they also include the international schools which recruit round the world. In general their curricula follow traditional Swiss or, in the international schools, English and American patterns but parents who favour more child-centred methods are well-provided for by Montessori, Decroly and more recently a rapidly growing number of Steiner schools. Under the banner *L'École privée 2000* their associations are campaigning, though not perhaps with great hopes of success, for a more liberal attitude from state authorities and greater understanding of the importance of variety and choice in education as a means of ensuring a tolerant and responsible adult democratic society. They stress their adaptability, their record of educational experiment and their ability to respond to a wide range of educational demands alongside and in collaboration with the state schools; and they support the stress given in Catholic and Protestant schools to a Christian-based education and the development of the personality.

The main published aims include:

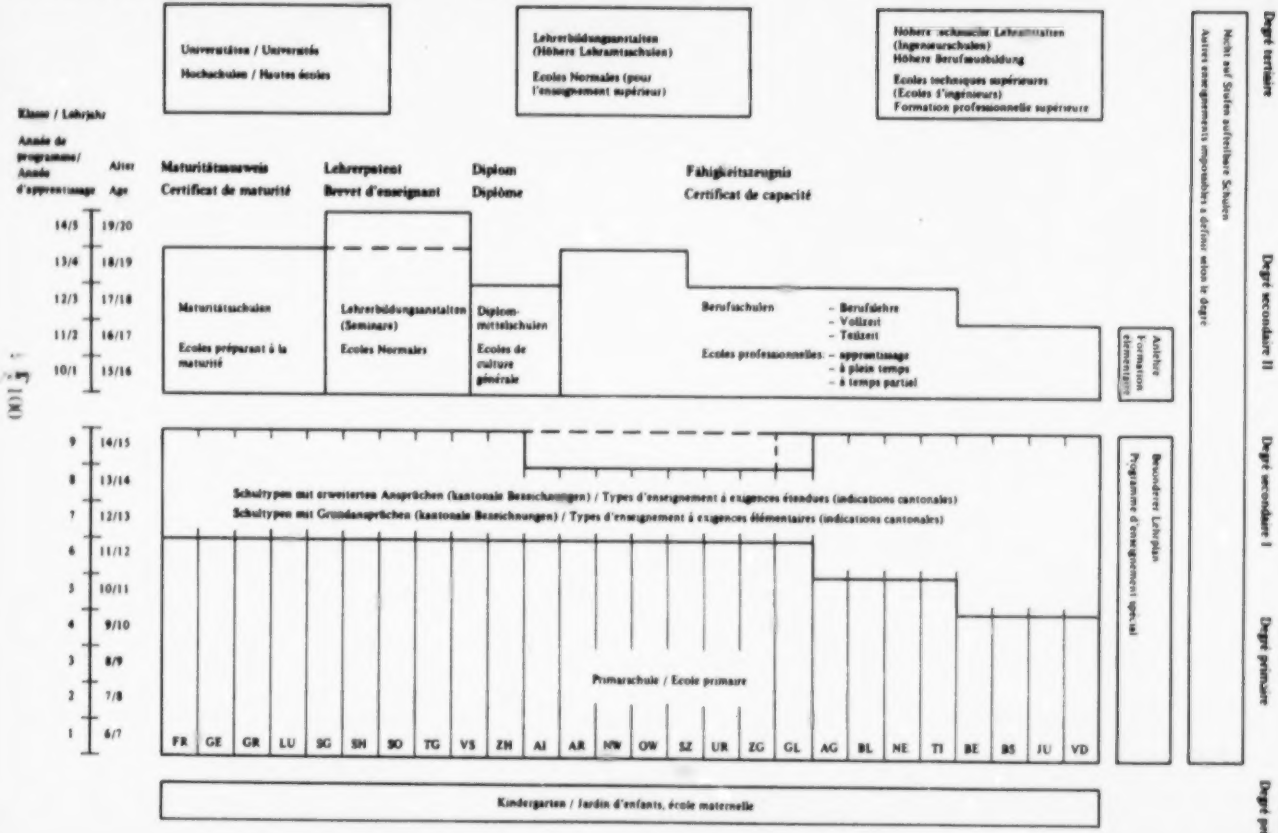
a) supporting a proposal from the Federal Education Council that the Constitution be amended to provide that 'the state supports the establishment and use of private educational institutions' on the grounds that an extension of state subsidy increases educational opportunity and furthers educational change.

b) persuading the public that the rights of choice enshrined in the various declarations of human rights can only be assured if state subsidies to independent schools help parents to use them without financial sacrifice.

c) promoting proposals in cantonal parliaments which do not subsidise fees for the granting of relief from taxes or for vouchers for fee-paying parents.

Even when they are subsidised, places at the indigenous independent schools are relatively expensive. Friendly critics stress the need to avoid the creation of an élite system which gives unfair advantage to children of the well-off and would prefer not to see them as a separate alternative to the state pattern, though at the same time they recognise their contribution to the efficiency of national education through the competition and innovation they provide. The schools which cater mainly for foreign students fall outside the purview of public education, but are acknowledged to extend Swiss influence abroad and bring in valuable foreign exchange. This was reckoned at SFr234m in 1986.

5 Organigramm des schweizerischen Schulwesens (vereinfacht), Schuljahr 1986/87
5 Organigramme simplifié de l'enseignement en Suisse, année scolaire 1986/87



APPENDIX 1

Independent School Associations

International.

Le Comité Européen pour l' enseignement Catholique (CEEC).
rue de l'Industrie 42, B-1040 Bruxelles, Belgium.
Tel: Int+32 2 511 82 32/511 75 01. Fax: 511 59 89.
The European Council of National Associations of Independent Schools (ECNAIS).
Registered Office and Chairman: Leeward, Longborough, Moreton-in-Marsh, Glos: GL56 0QR. Tel and Fax: Int+44 (0)451 30147.
Secretariat: Langes Gaard 12, 2.tv., 4200 Slagelse, Denmark.
Tel: Int+45 53 53 18 45. Fax: 53 53 25 28.

Belgium.

Secrétariat National pour l'Enseignment Catholique.
rue Guimard 1, B-1040, Bruxelles. Tel: Int+32 2 513 68 80.
La Féderation des Écoles Libres Subventionées Indépendantes (FELSI)
École Decroly, 45 Drève des Gendarmes, B-1180 Bruxelles. Tel: Int+32 2 374 17 03.
Federatie van de Rudolf Steinerscholen.
c/o Hibernia School, Rodestraat 33, B—2000 Antwerpen. Tel: Int+32 3 234 25 97.

Denmark.

Frie Grundskolers Fællesråd (FGF). Address as ECNAIS Secretariat. †

France.

Le Secrétariat Général de l'Enseignement Catholique.
rue St. Jacques 277, Paris 5e. Tel: Int+33 1 43 29 12 77.
La Fédération Nationale des Écoles Privées Laïques sous contrat avec l'État (FEPLCE).
Eurécole, 5 rue de Lubeck, 75115 Paris. Tel: Int+33 1 4070 12 81.
La Fédération nationale de l'Enseignement Privé Laïque (FNEPL).
37 rue d'Amsterdam, 65008 Paris. Tel: Int+33 45 960340.
Fédération des Écoles Rudolf Steiner en France.
Libre École Rudolf Steiner, 62 rue de Paris, Amblainvilliers, F-91370, Verrières-le-Buisson.

Germany.

Arbeitsgemeinschaft freier Schulen.
Am Schlachtensee 2, D-1000 Berlin 37. Tel: Int+49 30 80 12 079.
Arbeitskreis katolischer Schulen in freien Trägerschaft.
Kaiserstraße 163, D-5300, Bonn. Tel: Int+49 228 10 31.
Arbeitsgemeinschaft der evangelischen Schulen.
Altstädte Kirschplatz 5, 4800 Bielefeld 1. Tel: Int+49 (0) 521 59 42 79.
Bund der freien Waldorfschulen e.V. †
Heidehofstraße 32, D-7000 Stuttgart 1. Tel: Int+49 711 21041-0.
Vereinigung deutscher Landerziehungsheime.
Address as for the Arbeitsgemeinschaft in Berlin.
Schulen in freien Trägerschaft-Bundesverband Deutscher Privatschulen. †
Hermannstraße 32, D-6000 Frankfurt/Main 1.
Tel: Int+49 69 59 80 67. Fax: /49 69 55 52 05.

Greece.

c/o The Moraitis School, 154 52 Psychico, Athens.
Tel: Int + 30 1 6713 508/641. Fax: 1 6722810

Ireland (Eire).

The Irish Schoolmasters' Association (for Protestant secondary schools) †
c/o Wesley College, Dublin 14. Tel: Int + 353 1 98 70 66. Fax: 98 74 06.
The Secondary Schools Joint Managerial Body.
Milltown Park, Sandford Road, Dublin 14. Tel: Int + 1 97 84 22.

Italy.

Associazione Gestori Istituti della Autorità Ecclesiastica (AGIDAE).
Via Poerio 55, 00100 Roma. Tel: Int + 39 6 5881195 (Catholic Governing Bodies).
Federazione Istituti de Attività Educativa (FIDAE) (Catholic schools)
Via della Pigna 13/A, 00186 Roma. Tel: Int + 39 6 6796655.
Associazione Nazionale Istituti non Statali di Educazione e di Istruzione (ANINSEI)
Via PO 102, 00198 Roma. Tel: Int + 39 6 8543402.
Federazione Italiana Istituti non Statali di Educazione e di Istruzione (FIINSEI)
Viale Trastevere 82, 00100 Roma. Tel: Int + 39 6 58955876.

Luxembourg.

Association pour la Gestion des Écoles de la Doctrine Chrétienne (AGEDOC).
21, rue d'Anvers, L-1130 or Boîte Postale 1253, L—1012, Luxembourg.
Tel: Int + 352 49 94 31 262.
Association pour la gestion des écoles de St. Elisabeth.
101 rue de Luxembourg, L-4221 Esch/Alzette.

The Netherlands.

Nederlands Algemeen Bijzondere Schoolraad (NABS). (non-denominational). †
Bezuidenhoutseweg 225, NL-2594, AL DEN HAAG.
Tel: Int + 31 703 470261. Fax: /814281.
Nederlandse Katholieke Schoolraad (NKSR).
Stadhouderslaan 9, NL-2508 ED6's 'Gravenhage. Tel: Int + 31 703 814419.
Nederlandse Protestants Christelijke Schoolraad. (NPCS). †
Besturenraad PCO, Postbus 907, 2700 AX Voorburg.
Tel: Int + 31 703 481232. Fax: /821201.
Bond van Vrije Scholen.
Hoofdstraat 20, NL-3972 LA Driebergen. Tel: Int + 31 343821114.

Portugal.

Associação de Representantes de Estabelecimentos de Ensino Particular. (AEEP). †
Av. Elias Garcia 76-5°, 1000 Lisboa. Tel: Int + 351 1 769264.

Spain.

Confederación Española Centros de Enseñanza (CECE). †
Españoleto 19, E-28010 Madrid. Tel: Int + 34 4 410 03 06. Fax: 4 308 19 27.
Federación Española de Religiosos de la Enseñanza (FERE).
Conde de Peñalver 45-4°, E-28006 Madrid.
Tel: Int + 34 1 402 13 00. Fax: /1 309 17 40.
Confederación de Centros Educación y Gestión (CCEG). †
Calle Diego de León 22,5° izda, E-28006 Madrid.
Tel: Int + 34 1 577 85 88. Fax: /4 308 19 27.

Groupe Suisse des Écoles de Langues (GSEL). †
CTA, Istituto Interlingue, via Monte Boglia 4, CH-6900 Lugano.
Verband freier Evangelischen Schulen der Schweiz.
Evangelisches Seminar NMS Bern,
Waisenhausplatz 29. CH-3011 Bern. Tel: Int+41 (0)31 22 48 51.
Rudolf Steiner Schulen.
Schlössli Ins, Rudolf-Steiner Schule, CH-3232 Ins/BE.
Tel: Int+41 (0)32 831050/831450.

International Schools.

European Council of International Schools (ECIS).
21B Lavant St., Petersfield GU32 3EZ.
Tel: Int+4 (0)730 68244. Fax: 730 67984.

British Schools in Europe.

Council of British Independent Schools in the European Communities (COBISEC).
11 Avenue de Mercure, B-1180 Bruxelles, Belgium. Tel: Int+44 2 375 27 21

N.B. (O) normally means that this is only used when dialling within the country concerned.

† = member association of ECNAIS.

APPENDIX 2.

The following approximate middle exchange rates with £1 sterling in December 1991 may be useful in comparing costs in independent schools in different countries.

Belgium	BFr 59
Denmark	Kr 11
France	Fr 10
German	Dm 2.9
Greece	Dr 335
Ireland	Pt 1.1
Italy	Lira 2,200
Luxembourg	as Belgium
Netherlands	Gld 3.2
Portugal	Esc 255
Spain	Pta 180
Austria	Sch 20.5
Finland	Mkk 8
Norway	Kr 11.5
Sweden	Kr 10.7
Switzerland	Fr 2.55

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Associación de Centros Autónomos de la Ensenãnza (ACADE)
Ramon de Santillan 12, 2B, E-28016 Madrid. Tel: Int+34 1 259 99 89.

The United Kingdom.

The Independent Schools Joint Council. (ISJC). †
Grosvenor Gardens House, 35-7 Grosvenor Gardens, London SW1H 7AW.
Tel: Int+44 (0)71 630 0144. Fax: /931 0036.
The Independent Schools Information Service (ISIS).
56 Buckingham Gate, London SW1E 6AG.
Tel: Int+44 (0) 71 630 8793. Fax: /630 5013
ISIS National Research Project — address as for ECNAIS registered above.
The Association of Rudolf Steiner Schools in the United Kingdom and Ireland. †
Kidbrooke Park, Forest Row, Sussex RH18 5JB. Tel: Int+44 (0)342 822115.
The Scottish Council of Independent Schools. †
Independent Schools Information Service, Scotland.
Floor 2/1, 11 Castle Street, Edinburgh EH2 3AH. Tel: Int+44 (0)31-220-2106.

Austria.

Bund Freier Waldorfschulen.
Endresstraße 100, A-1238 Wien 23. Tel: Int+43 (0)222 86 12 75.

Finland.

Yksityisoppikoulujenliitto — Assocn. of Private Schools in Finland. †
Fredriksgatan 61 3krs, SF-00100 Helsinki Finland. Tel: Int+358 0 6943 426.
Foreningen för Steinerpedagogik rv.
Lehtikuusentie 6, Lärkträdsvägen, SF-00270 Helsinki 27. Tel: Int+358 90 41 33 99.

Norway.

Kristne Friskolers Forbund (Assocn. of Christian Schools) †
Postboks 6830, St. Olavs Plads, N-0130 Oslo 1.
Tel: Int+47 2 46 52 31. Fax: /38 14 58.
Norske Privatskolers Landsforbund. †
Storingsgaten 30, N-0160 Oslo 1. Tel: Int+47 5 22 61 51.
Steinerskolene i Norge.
Postboks 25, N-0705 Oslo 7. Tel: Int+47 2 491350/144804.

Sweden.

Förbundet för alternativa skolor i Sverige (FASS). †
Fredmansgatan 1-3, S-11626 Stockholm. Tel: Int+46 (0)8 40 72 42.
Sveriges Kristna Friskoleråd.
Fyrhellsvegen 13, S-435 44 Mölnlycke. Tel: Int+46 (0)31 88 21 08.
Riksföreningen för Waldorfpedagogik.
Samarbetssekretariatet, Ståthöga, Box 748, S-60116 Norköping.
Tel: Int+46 (0)11 12 06 71.

Switzerland.

Arbeitsstelle für Bildungsfragen der Schweizer Katoliken.
Hirschengraben 13, Postfach 2069, CH-6002 Luzern. Tel: Int+41 41 23 50 55.
Arbeitsgemeinschaft schweizerischen Privatschulen. †
Hauptstraße 4, CH-4143 Dornach. Tel: Int+41 61 701 20 56.
Fédération Suisse des écoles privées. (FSEP).
41 rue des Vollandes, CH-1211 Genève. Tel: Int+41 (0)22 35 57 06.

NATIONAL ISIS

56 Buckingham Gate
London, SW1E 6AG
Tel: 071-630 8793 4
National Director: D. J. Woodhead

ISIS – the Independent Schools Information Service – was founded in 1965 and became a national organisation in 1972. It is largely financed by the leading associations of independent schools in Britain which have 1,380 schools in membership.

It was founded:

1. to inform the public of the true nature of independent schools and of their value to the nation;
2. to answer parents' questions about independent schools and to help them with their educational problems. This service is provided in London and at eight regional offices covering the UK and Ireland.

ISIS runs consultancy, placement and clearing house services for parents overseas and in the UK seeking independent schools for their children in Britain.

The ISIS Association was formed in 1974 for friends and supporters of independent schools. Subscription is £15 a year (£17 overseas) and enables members to receive termly magazines, ISIS literature and other benefits.

ISIS's Research Project was set up in 1981 under Mr. Peter Mason, MBE, former High Master of The Manchester Grammar School, as Honorary Director.

Peter Mason, MBE, former High Master of The Manchester Grammar School, is Honorary Director of the ISIS National Research Project, and author of the series of studies of independent education of which this is the most recent. His address is Leeward, Longborough, Moreton-in-Marsh, Gloucestershire, GL56 0QR (Telephone and Fax 0451 30147), from which further information may be obtained.

Mr. Mason has travelled and lectured widely in Europe, Africa, India, North America, Australia and New Zealand, and has written numerous articles on education for national and specialist journals and magazines in Britain, Europe and the US. He is a member of the British Educational Research Association and of the American Association for Research on Private Education.

He has served as Chairman of the Council for Education in World Citizenship, the British Volunteer Programme and the Regional Conference for International Voluntary Service, now called FORUM, – a European co-ordinating organisation for voluntary service in the Third World – and is currently the representative of the Independent Schools Joint Council on and Chairman of the European Council of National Associations of Independent Schools (ECNAIS) which was established in 1988. He is a Governor of an independent boys' school and a girls' boarding school in the UK and of an English co-educational day and boarding school in Spain and is Chairman of an Educational Trust.

ISIS DOCUMENT NO. 34, January 1992

Further copies of this document may be obtained from National ISIS, 56 Buckingham Gate, London, SW1E 6AG. Price £5.00 (including inland postage and packing).

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